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DENMARK AND ICELAND.

BY

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E. C. OTTÉ.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS.

London :

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DENMARK AND ICELAND.

CHAPTER I.

Denmark in ancient times : its later acquisitions and losses—Modern Denmark : its position, area and population—Jutland and the Islands : their boundaries and general character—The climate, flora and fauna.

IN the present year (1880), the Danish monarchy reaches the thousandth anniversary of its foundation under Gorm the Old, whose reign bridges over the interval between mere sagas and the dawn of history. Before his time all is dark and chaotic ; after it we can trace every link in the long chain of descent, that binds together the Danish kings of the nineteenth century and this first ruler of a kingdom of Denmark.

Gorm is assumed to have been a descendant of the far-famed Vikingar, and pirate-king, Regnar Lodbrog, whose semi-mythic, semi-historic renown has made the story of his life an incomprehensible puzzle, alike to Danish and English historians.

According to tradition, it was in right of his father Hardeknud, a grandson of Regnar, that Gorm became ruler over Sjælland and Skåne on the opposite coasts of the Sound. At this period the rest of the islands, together with Jutland, appear to have been in the power of the sons and near kinsmen of Regnar, who, when not roaming the seas, were engaged in perpetual strife,—each one endeavouring to defend, or enlarge his dominions, which often extended no further than the strip of land to which his barks were moored, or the patch of ground on which he had entrenched himself. Like another Hercules, Gorm began early to attack this hydra of self-styled kings, and while still in the prime of life he made himself master of all the lands occupied by the Danes between the North-Sea and the eastern half of the Baltic. One of his earliest achievements was the subjugation of Reidgotaland, “the terra-firma of the Goths,” which was soon known as Nord-Jylland and Syd-Jylland, or North Jutland and South Jutland, the former corresponding nearly with the Jutland of our times, and the latter comprising the territories of Slesvig, which even in that remote age had ripened into an apple of discord between the Dane and his powerful neighbour, the German. The southern boundary of this debatable land

was loosely drawn between the Slie and the mouths of the Eyder, and the Elbe, and fluctuated in accordance with the varying degree of vigilance shown by the Counts of the Marches in guarding the frontier of the Frankish empire. We are told that Gorm's Christian queen, Thyra, surnamed Dannebod ("The Danes' Pride"), seeing the misery of the people on the Danish border, resolved to throw up a line of defences against the inroads of the Franks, and in the absence of her husband,—who, like a true-born Northman, was engaged in "viking," in other words, piracy,—summoned the chieftains of the Danish Isles to come to her Court at Vejle, in Jutland; inviting each one to state, in the presence of the whole assembly, how many men, and what materials, he was prepared to contribute to the great work. Success attended her appeal; and when, three years later, Gorm returned from his roving, he found that a line of earthworks, stretching ten miles across, from the mouth of the Slie to the Trene, had been raised under the orders of his queen, whose name has come down to us in association with the earliest of the so-called "Dannevirke," to which the Danes long trusted as an invincible barrier against attacks from their German neighbours.

The Denmark of Gorm was made, under his successors of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, to extend its sway across the seas to the continent of Europe, while the Baltic, through the conquests of the Valdemars over the Wends in the east, and the Frisians in the west, became for a time a Danish inland sea. But the power, thus suddenly grasped, was never firmly held, and when the strong hands were removed to which Denmark owed this short-lived accession of territory, it was promptly reduced to its older limits, retaining no trace of these ancient conquests, but the empty title of "ruler of the Wends and the Ditmarshers," still accorded to its kings. At the close of the fourteenth century, Margaret, the daughter of the last of the Valdemars, believed that by the Act of Union, signed by her and the representatives of the three kingdoms, at Calmar, on July 1st, 1397, she had secured the realization of her life's dream of binding the Scandinavian lands into one triple monarchy. But her successors lacked her talents for ruling, and Denmark reaped only a harvest of war and humiliation from the seeds of greatness she had hoped to sow.

In the middle of the seventeenth century—after eight hundred years' possession,—Denmark was forced, by the treaty of Roskilde, concluded with

Sweden on February 26th, 1658, to give up to the latter the provinces of Skåne, Bleking, and Halland, which since the days of Gorm the Old had formed an integral part of the Danish monarchy. The cession of these territories, which was the natural termination of a long series of wars between the Danes and the Swedes, in which the latter had been the victors, not only caused Denmark to lose a large and fruitful portion of its States, but, by depriving it of the undivided control of the passage of the Sound, gave the death-blow, at once to its maritime commerce, and its political influence. As long as the Danes held the only key that opened a water-way to the Baltic for the nations of South-western Europe, Denmark enjoyed a degree of international importance more than commensurate with its power; but from the hour that the Swedish flag floated over the eastern shores of the Sound, and Swedish land-batteries could answer the Danish guns of Cronborg, from across the waters of that narrow strait, it lost even the semblance of strength.

The present century has been as disastrous to the Danes as the seventeenth, for by the adverse fortunes of war Denmark has been reduced, in our own day, to dimensions inferior to those possessed by the monarchy of Gorm the Old, and now consists, in

accordance with a treaty signed by the Great Powers at Vienna, on the 30th of October, 1864, of the following territories only :—

Jutland ; the Islands of the Cattegat ; and the little Island of Bornholm, in the Baltic (14° E. long.), which are all included in the parallels of 54° and 58° N. lat., and, with the exception of Bornholm, in $8^{\circ} 10'$ and $12^{\circ} 35'$ E. long.

The combined areas of these small territories fall slightly short of 15,000 English square miles, in the proportion of about 9800 in Jutland, and somewhat more than 5100 in the Islands collectively, with a population of 2,000,000, divided almost equally between the two, to which Copenhagen, with its immediate environs, contributes about 250,000, and the other towns collectively about 300,000 inhabitants. These numbers mark a great increase of the population since the first census in Denmark was taken in 1769, and especially since 1840, from which time the numbering of the people has been fixed by law to take place every tenth year, on the 1st of February.¹

It should be observed that the difference between

¹ Professor Velschow estimates that in the 9th century the Danish territories, including Skåne, Halland, Bleking and Slesvig, had 900,000 inhabitants, of whom one-third were slaves. In the middle ages, owing to continual civil wars, the population fell far below this estimate, and it was not till 1810 that it reached a million.

the relative density of the population in Jutland, and in the Islands, is more apparent than real, for although the former has nearly twice as large an area as the latter, more than a third of its land is uninhabitable, and unfit for cultivation. This is mainly due to the action of the winds and waves that incessantly beat upon the low-lying lands of this narrow isthmus, which forms, together with Slesvig and Holstein, a natural breakwater between the North Sea and the Baltic, and is projected like a slightly bent bow due north from the mouth of the Elbe. And thus Jutland, which was known to the Romans as part of their "Chersonesus Cimbrica," carries the northern boundary of Central Europe as high as $57^{\circ} 45'$ N. lat., where it terminates at the point of Skagen, known to English seamen as "the Skaw." From its Slesvig boundary, as far north as Hjerting, the western coast-line of Jutland trends west, but from that point to the Agger Canal, although broken by several almost inaccessible fjords, it runs nearly due north. Here the rupture of the canal, and its junction with the Limfjord, have led to the complete severance of the northern extremity of the peninsula, which, under the contending action of the waters of the North Sea on the west, and of the Cattegat on the east, is threatened with a final breaking up of its

low-lying lands into an archipelago of numerous small islands. The eastern coast-line, after running almost due south from the Skagen to the mouth of the Gudenå, is carried about 20 miles eastward to Grenå on the Cattegat, where the peninsula reaches its greatest width (about 100 miles). From Århus to the Slesvig boundary the line curves strongly south-west, until at Kolding the width of the peninsula, and the consequent distance between the North Sea and the Little Belt, is reduced to about 40 miles, and at this narrow base the only separation between Jutland and Slesvig is the political boundary drawn by German conquest. From its position, Jutland is wind- and wave-scourged throughout its length and breadth. On the west, the storms of the German Ocean desolate its shores; on the north and east the mingling waters of the Skagerrak and the Cattegat assail every accessible point of its coast-line; and it is only on the south-east, where the Little Belt is given off from the Cattegat, that it is washed by comparatively calm seas.

Here, midstream in the channels that unite the Baltic with the waters of the German Ocean, the Danish Islands find comparative shelter from the storms of either sea. Bounded to the west by the peninsula of Jutland and Slesvig-Holstein, to the

east by the southern extremity of Sweden, to the south by the narrow line of sea which alone divides it from the German continent, and to the north by the Cattegat, the Danish archipelago enjoys physical and climatic advantages not possessed by neighbouring lands. These Islands—of which there are about 150—are divided into two principal groups: those of Seeland, and of Fyen; to the former of which belong Seeland (the seat of the capital, Copenhagen,) and the islands of Lâland, Falster, Möen, &c., and to the latter Fyen, with Langeland, Ærö, and numerous smaller islands. The Sound divides the Seeland group from Sweden; the Great Belt separates the two main groups; and the Little Belt forms a narrow line of separation between Fyen and the Slesvig-Jutland peninsula; while innumerable islets are ranged like links of connexion between the separate groups, and the various larger islands of each group. And these, together with intervening lines of sand-banks, seem, like an interminable labyrinth of stepping-stones rising out of the surrounding waters, to point to the existence, in an earlier geological period, of a continuous and extended tract of land, connecting Seeland with Jutland on one side, and with Sweden on the other, while it may be assumed that before the Baltic and the Gulf of Finland had acquired their actual

forms and proportions, the present Danish archipelago was united with the north German continent. We may thus regard Jutland and the Islands as prolongations of the great plain of northern, and eastern Europe, in which deep chalk-beds underlie sand, and rubble-stone, clay, and drift, although in western Jutland, and at the south-west of Fyen and Seeland, lignites take the place of the chalk. The one solitary ridge of high ground that breaks the general dead-level, and which may be considered as the northern extremity of the system of the Hartz Mountains, forms a medial line, dividing the peninsula of Jutland into an eastern and a western slope, the former of which gives off a few lateral heights, which readily admit of cultivation, and on which are to be found some of the best wooded, and most fertile tracts, while the latter gradually merges into heaths, downs, and bogs, which near the German Ocean disappear under the covering of shifting sand, that is thrown inland by the force of the storms which beat incessantly on this dreary, and treacherous coast. The greatest height attained by the Jutland-ridge is that of the Himmelbjærg, 550 feet, while in the Islands the highest elevation, 500 feet, is reached by the Rytterknegst in Bornholm. The fruitful little island of Möen follows next, with its Kongebjærg, 450 feet high ;

while Fyen has one hill, the Fröbjærg, exceeding 400 feet in height, and Seeland a solitary point, Gyldenlöves Høj, which attains nearly the same modest elevation. According to Professor Forchhammer, the Danish peninsula and islands owe their origin to deposition from the surrounding seas. A process of upheaval is still in operation in the north and east, while in the west of Jutland, and on the south and west of the Islands, the sea, even in historic times, has made appreciable inroads, as in the case of the Frisian settlements off Jutland and Slesvig, which, from a once prosperous archipelago, have been reduced to a few scattered islands, almost inaccessible by reason of the girdle of sand-banks by which they are interlaced.

The climate of Denmark, generally, is favourably influenced by the action of the Gulf stream, and although the mean annual temperature of Copenhagen is nearly the same as that of Edinburgh, viz. 47° Fahr., its greater mean summer heat of 64° Fahr. gives it advantages over that of the Scottish capital in regard to the better ripening of cereals, and other vegetable productions, while its mean winter temperature of 31° Fahr. is 16° Fahr. higher than that of Moscow, which lies in nearly the same latitude. The extremes of heat and cold are,

moreover, not specially great, for while the highest temperature ever recorded at the observatory of Copenhagen was 99° Fahr. [in July, 1834], the lowest was 15° below 0. Fahr. [in January, 1786].

The mean annual amount of rain is computed at twenty-one inches for Denmark generally, but that quantity is by no means equally distributed, the western districts registering about 50 per cent. more than the eastern; and although August is the rainiest, and March the driest month, the weather in Denmark may be regarded as extremely uncertain, except in so far that meteorological data justify the expectation that two or three dry days will be followed by rain. Thus it is found that, with less than 70 perfectly clear days in the year, the annual means for rainy and snowy days are 105 for the former, and 32 for the latter, and while the frequent rains of the summer often interfere seriously with the harvest, the general dryness of the spring is equally injurious to the grass crops. In addition to these climatic disadvantages, westerly winds, which predominate in the proportion of 50 to 100 over all other winds, are often most destructive in their action. Thus in Jutland especially, and on the western shores of the Islands generally, a storm from the north-west frequently does irreparable injury to the land by whirling clouds of sand over woods

and fields, destroying trees, and burying crops and all other forms of vegetation under one dense covering of sand. At times, this same inimical wind carries far inland a thick salt fog, that seres and withers up every leaf and blossom on which it rests. If, therefore, the Danish peninsula and islands enjoy generally favourable climatic relations, it must be admitted that the ocean to which geologists refer their origin, does not spare its children the infliction of many grievous scourges.

Wherever the land is sheltered from the action of such ocean-born winds it is generally productive, and admits of the successful cultivation of most of our ordinary cereals, garden fruits, and vegetables; the greater summer heat, and the greater length of the summer day, compensating for the lateness and shortness of the spring, and thus the Danish farmer is able in average seasons to reap his wheat as early as it can be cut in the south of France. The flora of Denmark is indeed nearly the same as that of the plain of Central Europe, but while deciduous trees, such as the beech especially, the oak, elm, alder, and willow grow well, and even luxuriantly, pines and firs are not of frequent occurrence; although their presence below the oak, and the still more recent beech in the bogs of Denmark, shows that these trees once formed a considerable part of

the natural woodland of the country. The Danes are beginning, however, to appreciate the value of conifers as means of affording a winter shelter to circumjacent crops, and should success attend the attempts now being made for their reintroduction, the character of the scenery, and the capability of the soil for cultivation, must of necessity be greatly modified and improved in many parts of the country.

The large extent of heath, and bog-land, in the western parts of the kingdom, naturally determines the general character of the flora in such districts. And till recently, at any rate, there were many Jutlanders who never in the course of their lives had seen a full-grown tree; heather, moss, and grasses predominating everywhere, and a few stunted bushes being the only representatives of the willow, alder, or ash, that the soil was capable of producing.

The zoologist and the sportsman will find even less than the botanist to arrest their attention, for while the land animals, which are similar to those in North Germany, are almost wholly limited to domesticated forms, sea animals,—including under that general term both fishes and the lower forms of animal life, dear to the marine zoologist—are not abundant off the shores, owing to the constant shifting and accumulation of sand near the coasts.

Of game there is very little, but water-fowl are abundant; and while the presence of the stork gives a peculiar character to the landscape, the abundance of migratory singing-birds, which in Denmark have little to fear even from human foes, lends a great charm to the Danish woods.

CHAPTER II.

Agriculture—Difficulties in the way of farming—Character of produce—Mode of rating land—Proportional value of landed property—Its influence on politics—Breeding of cattle—Fisheries—Natural products—Industries—Trade—Channels of communication—Roads—Railways—Telegraph-lines—Post—Money—Scales of measurement and weight.

AGRICULTURE has always been one of the principal sources of occupation in Denmark, although the Danish farmer has to contend, among other disturbing causes, with an uncertain climate, the prevalence of quicksands, and insufficiency of shelter for his crops. These evils are most sensibly felt in Jutland, where sand-ridges, heaths, and bogs make half the area incapable of cultivation. Happily, however, the State has of late years directed its attention to the best means of redeeming the land from further encroachment of the sea, and securing shelter from the devastating sand- and wind-storms, that even in the interior frequently destroy the labour of the husbandman. The planting of grasses, such as *Arundo arenaria*,

whose long twisted roots enable them to keep their hold in the loose sand, has been found highly serviceable in arresting the spread of quick-sands, and, under the management of the agricultural and forestry societies of Denmark, the land is everywhere beginning to give promise of improvement.

Wheat is grown less extensively in Denmark for home consumption than any other cereal, and it is only in recent years that it has been largely cultivated for exportation. The high latitude, and various local causes were assumed to be too unfavourable to the ripening of this grain to make its cultivation remunerative ; but the returns for the years, intervening between 1873 and 1878, would appear to show that a better system of farming has been able to overcome these difficulties, since the value of the exports of wheat, during that time, had risen from less than five to nearly eight million kroner.

Rye is still the special bread cereal of Denmark although wheat is beginning to supersede it ; and owing to the large home demand, the exports have not yet risen much above those of the latter.

Barley is less largely exported, and brings a return of about 3 million kr., while the value of the exports of oats, which are principally grown on the poorer lands of Jutland, has fluctuated in the

last five years between 16 and 13 million Kr. Large quantities of this cereal are used at home in the feeding of horses and other animals, for which purpose, however, swedes and wurzel are now beginning to be cultivated. At present potatoes, which are cultivated chiefly on the sandy lands of Jutland, form an essential article of fodder for cattle, while before the appearance of the potato disease in 1847, this vegetable served no less as the main food of the poorer classes. Hemp and hops are grown only for home use, but rape-seed is raised both for exportation and for the supply of the mills of Seeland and Fyen, where the extraction of the oil forms an active branch of Danish rural industry.

Landed property in Denmark is rated in accordance with a system, known as "Hartkorn," in which the quantity of corn which the land is capable of yielding is adopted for the basis on which its value is estimated. The scale accepted in 1844, as the officially established rate of measurement, assumes that good normal land should yield 1 ton of corn for $5\frac{1}{2}$ tons of land, (1 ton of land = 14,000 ells, and 9955 tons = 1 square Danish mile). This mode of estimate regulates the assessment of the land-taxes, and forms a standard for the specification of the comparative value of landed property, which is classified under three heads, viz. :

I. Estates having a Hartkorn of upwards of 20 tons; of which there were at the last land-survey (of 1875) 847, with 37,500 tons Hartkorn. II. "Böndergårde," or peasant-farms, rated at from 1 to 20 tons, of which there were 73,000, with 296,000 tons Hartk. III. Tenements under one ton, of which there were 132,700, with 39,300 tons Hartk. This estimate shows the large proportion of land that is held by the Bönder, and the other smaller proprietors; and it is obvious that in a country like Denmark, where universal franchise exists, this preponderance on the part of the lower section of its land-owners must have a marked influence on the home-policy of the government. And, in point of fact, we find that their superiority of numbers virtually makes the Bönder masters of the Folkething, or Lower Chamber, and enables them at the same time to exercise a pressure on the Landsting, or Upper Chamber, which frequently brings the whole legislative machinery to a dead-lock, from which it can only be temporarily extricated through the exercise, on the part of the king, of special prerogatives of the crown for dissolving the chambers under certain prescribed conditions.

Next to agriculture, the breeding of horses and cattle forms a staple branch of rural industry, Denmark having an exceptionally large number of

horses in proportion to its population ; but this is rather due to the general inferiority of the animals, and the imperfection of agricultural and other implements, than to national prosperity. In Jutland, however, some good horses are bred for cavalry purposes, and of these and others about 6000 to 7000 are annually exported. The ordinary Danish horses are small and short-necked, but they are strong and serviceable ; and of this less showy breed, a large number are raised for domestic purposes by the peasant proprietors, who pay little attention to race, while since the breaking up of the royal studs, the handsome carriage-horses used for state cavalcades, for which Denmark was once noted, have almost ceased to form an article of export.

The recent increased demand for cattle in England has had the beneficial effect of directing the attention of Danish farmers to the improvement of their stock, which, instead of being badly fed, as in former times, has lately been tended with great care, with a view to the supply of the London market, where it is steadily acquiring a good name. Dairy farming is also rapidly improving under a similar stimulus, both in Jutland and the Islands, where the older slovenly methods have of late years begun to give place to more scientific systems of management.

Unfortunately, no improvement of this kind has taken place in the fisheries of Denmark, which were once proverbially productive, but which, by long continued mismanagement, have been nearly exhausted ; and although some fish, as flounders, cod, herrings and mackerel, are taken off the coasts of Jutland, in the Cattegat, and the Little Belt, the supply is inadequate to the wants of the people, and the Copenhagen market is largely dependent on the industry of the Bornholm fishermen. Salmon may still be obtained in the fjords of Jutland, but no longer with the same certainty as before the rupture of the Agger Canal into the Limfjord, while oysters are annually becoming more scarce, excepting on the banks at Frederikshavn, Skagen, and the Limfjord, which belong to the Crown, as does also the monopoly of the porpoise fisheries in the Little Belt, where these fisheries, unique of their kind, were established in the seventeenth century, and continued till lately to be highly productive.

Amber is another speciality of the littoral produce of Denmark, and is thrown up on all the coasts, although in the greatest quantity and in pieces of the largest size on the western shores of Jutland.

The want of iron debars Denmark Proper from entering into competition with the manufacturing

countries of Europe, and as the few thin seams of coal that are to be met with in Bornholm, and the lignite beds in Jutland, are alike unable to pay the cost of their working, the Danes are forced to buy from other nations the greater part of the manufactures they require, and to import, chiefly from England, all the coal and iron used in the kingdom.

The frequent occurrence in Jutland and Bornholm of the so-called "Myremalm," or bog-iron ore, has led to various attempts for the extraction of the metal; but hitherto these efforts have not been attended with sufficient success to encourage their repetition, and Denmark, from her general mineral poverty, has to pay upwards of 6,000,000 kr. annually for her imports of minerals in the rough. The lime quarries of Seeland and Jutland are, however, of great importance, and in Bornholm an admirable lime for cement is obtained, as well as a hard compact limestone, capable of taking a good polish, and known as Bornholm marble, while the same island supplies a fine kaoline, which since its discovery at the end of the last century has been exclusively appropriated to the use of the porcelain works of Copenhagen, which were indeed mainly indebted for their establishment to the finding of this species of clay.

The scarcity of wood for fuel throws an addi-

tional obstacle in the way of native industries, among which the refining of sugar took the lead, as long as the Danish West-Indian Islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John supplied the raw material. This branch of industry was long protected, according to the colonial policy of the period, by the enactment of severe laws ; but since the emancipation of the Blacks in 1847, and owing to other causes, instead of exporting from 7 to 10 million pounds of sugar annually, Denmark now only draws two-thirds of her requisite supplies from her own colonies, and has to import cane-sugar from other West-Indian Islands, and beet-root sugar from France and Belgium.

At the present time distilleries, of which there are about 400 in Copenhagen and the provinces, for the preparation of the white brandy of the country, stand at the head of home industries, although the imports of spirits almost exactly balance the exports, which go chiefly to supply ships, or are sent to Iceland and Sweden.

The Danes have always shown skill in ship-building, which is carried on with considerable activity at Elsinore, Svendborg, Århus, and Fanö, and more than suffices for the wants of their mercantile fleet ; while in the designing, modelling, and carving of ornamental woodwork and furniture,

they display a very marked degree of taste and proficiency, which is no doubt in a great measure due to the admirable technical instruction, which is brought within reach of the Danish artisan in the various schools of design that have been established in the country towns, as well as in the capital. The same elegance and finish is shown in the gold and silversmith's work of the few Danish houses engaged in this branch of industry, and their successful imitation of ancient and mediæval patterns has given great impetus to the trade.

The Island of Bornholm, which enjoys the distinction of being the only Danish centre of watch-making, owes this art to the accidental stranding on its shores, in 1750, of a ship laden with cheap clocks and watches, which the enterprising islanders learnt so successfully to imitate, that since this period they have carried on a brisk trade in such simple time-pieces. The best known of Danish manufactures is, however, the Copenhagen china, which from the time of its establishment a hundred years ago till recently, was a Crown monopoly; while another Danish speciality is gloves, of which those known as "Randers"—which are made of sheep's and lamb's-skin tanned with willow bark—have acquired an European reputation for durability and cheapness. In these and other industries,

Danish artisans show not only good workmanship, but great originality and elegance of design, as may be seen in their house decorations, in their photography, and in the printing and illustrations of books, which, from having been among the worst of their kind, now rival the best productions of the press in other countries.

The trade of Denmark is principally one of transport, and the average number of ships that clear the Danish ports is between 80,000 and 85,000, of which one-third carry steam with a tonnage of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ million tons Danish. Of these rather more than half are coasting-vessels with less than one-third of the whole tonnage. The Danish merchant shipping may be reckoned at about 3300, of which less than 200 are steamers; and while the annual value of the imports during the last five years has fluctuated with the varying conditions of national prosperity, between 232 and 225 million kr., the exports in the corresponding years have fallen to 164, and risen to $180\frac{1}{2}$ million kr.

In considering the water-ways open to the Danish home trade, we find that the fjords, owing to their shortness, and the silting up of their mouths, are of much less importance than those of the other Scandinavian lands. On the western coast of Jut-

land the long line of sand-banks, which lie parallel with the trend of the shore, preclude access to the land except at a few isolated points, where, with favourable winds and in fair weather, small vessels drawing but little water may occasionally reach the Limfjord, Nisumfjord, or Hjertingfjord, by means of some narrow channel, which runs its tortuous course between sand-banks and shoals; but storms are seldom absent from these coasts, and the difficulties of the navigation are often aggravated by the sudden occurrence of thick fogs, known as "Havgyser," ocean-shudders. The Agger Canal, which was constructed at a great cost to open a passage into the Limfjord, for a time served to facilitate access to the North Sea, but the silting up of its mouth, and its final rupture, have deprived navigation of that little aid, and western Jutland has now not a single open harbour. On the eastern, or Cattegat side, a few fjords, and its solitary river the Godena, which has been canalized, bring Jutland into direct communication with the sea. The Limfjord, having cut itself a passage between the Cattegat and the North Sea through the falling in of the Agger Canal, would seem to offer an important channel of communication between those seas, and attempts have been made to deepen and canalize it, but past experience of

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In respect to her means of transport, continued

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the destructive agency of sands and storms on this tempest-beaten extremity of the peninsula does not hold out much hope of ultimate success. In the Islands, the few fjords are of little or no importance in regard to internal communication ; but on the eastern coasts, several well-sheltered harbours afford ready means of access from the sea. Thus in Seeland Elsinore, Copenhagen, and Kjöge supply admirable ports and secure havens of refuge for ships passing the Sound, which, as the only channel of water-communication between the Baltic and the rest of the world, constitutes one of the most important straits on the globe. Fyen in Nyborg on the east, and Middelfart on the west, possesses safe and roomy ports, which give it the command of the navigation and trade of the Large and the Little Belt ; while the lesser harbours of Svendborg and Fåborg are important from their position in regard to the small islands intervening between it and Seeland. Indeed, considering the extended coast-lines of the Danish dominions, it is self-evident that its trade and its means of inter-communication must be chiefly maritime, but, unfortunately, these advantages of position are greatly neutralized by physical causes against which human skill can effect but little.

In respect to her means of internal communica-

tion Denmark compares favourably with other countries, although the systematic construction of her public roads only dates back to 1764, when the State caused the first high-road to be laid down between the capital and the royal summer-palace of Fredensborg, a distance of twenty miles. Roads in Denmark are divided into three classes, of which the first, including all lines of communication running from the capital to ports connecting it with the larger provincial towns, is under the management of the State, while the remaining two classes are under communal, or private direction; and of these first and second classes there is now a length of about 850 Danish, or 4000 English miles, of which about six-tenths belong to Jutland.

The first railway was opened in Denmark in 1847, and ran from Copenhagen to the ancient capital, Roskilde. This line has been continued to Korsör, in connexion with the steam communication across the Great Belt to the Fyen group of islands. In Fyen and Jutland, where the State has been compelled to take undivided charge of the lines laid down at the cost of the Government, the entire length of which is about 1100 English miles, a direct communication between the Islands and the Slesvig-Holstein boundaries of the German States has been established by the linking of the

Danish lines into the great railway system of Continental Europe. The first lines laid down in Seeland received support from the State, but since 1864 the traffic- and passenger-returns have been so much in excess of the expenditure that the companies no longer require such aid.

The first telegraphic line in Denmark was laid in 1852, between Copenhagen and Hamburg, across Fyen, and *viâ* Jutland, and of late years private companies have laid various wires; the length of these and of the State lines amounting to about 4300 miles at the present time, whilst the cost of the latter exceeds the receipts by nearly two million kr. annually.

In 1851, the Rowland-Hill system of a low and uniform rate of postage superseded the old, and imperfect postal organization in Denmark, and since that period, the Danish authorities have been prompt to adopt every modification in the original scheme which tended to the better working of the national postal service.

A similar improvement has recently been introduced into the monetary system in Denmark, where in 1875 a new coinage was established, and the older Rigsdaller, Mark, and Skilling were replaced by the "Krone," divided into 100 öre; a krone = 1s. 1½d., or about half a Rigsdaller. The krone

and double krone, and the 25 and 10 öre pieces, are silver; and those of 5, 2, and 1 öre are bronze. There are gold coins of 20 and 10 kroner; while the National Bank issues paper-notes for 10, 20, 50, 100, and 500 kroner.

The Danish scale of measurement of length, which has not yet been reduced to a decimal system, gives 12 inches to the foot; 2 feet to the ell; 3 ells to the fathom; 12,000 ells to a land mile; and 11,820 ells to a sea mile: [1 ton of land=14,000 square ells.] The unit for weight is, however, less arbitrary, since 1 lb., which is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ kilogramme, is divisible into 100 kvint (quintet), each kvint=10 ort: a centner=100 lbs. The unit for fluid measures is the pot; one pot = $\frac{1}{3\frac{1}{2}}$ of a cubit foot, or 0.966 of a metric litre. It is divisible into 4 pægler; but while corn and other grain is measured by the ton containing 144 potter (pots) = $4\frac{1}{2}$ cubit feet, beer and brandy are measured by the ton of 136 potter. The measure for wine gives 3 pægler to the bottle; 2 cans to the pot; 8 potter to the quartet; 39 potter to the anker; 6 anker, or 234 potter, to the oxchoved, and 2 oxchoved, or 468 potter, to 1 pipe.

CHAPTER III.

* Government—Important changes effected under Frederik III., cousin of the Stuarts—The Diet—Folkething—Landsting; their respective modes of organization—Budget—National Debt—Army—Compulsory Service—Military System—Navy: its organization—The Fleet, &c.—Church Establishment—Episcopal Sees—Laws, past and present—Legal System—Crime—Penal Code—Patronymics—Titular Nobility—Orders of Knighthood—National standard of the Dannebrog.

FEW countries have experienced more important political changes, and none ever passed through a radical revolution of the entire system of its government with less injury than Denmark, which, after eight hundred years' existence as an elective monarchy, was transformed by a bloodless revolution, in 1660, under Frederik III., into one of the most autocratic kingdoms of Europe. For more than a century and a half the princes of the Oldenburg line continued to rule with absolute power; but in 1831, another Frederik (VI.) inaugurated a new and important change, by calling together a Legislative Chamber in each of the Danish provinces, in which was vested the right to confirm, or reject every

royal ordinance that concerned the personal interests of the subjects within the several sections of the kingdom represented by that chamber, and to sanction every new assessment before it could be levied. This abnegation of autocratic authority on the part of one of the most conservative princes of his age, although in some degree to be regarded as an unavoidable concession to the spirit of Liberalism, which was agitating continental Europe at the time, is nevertheless deserving of the gratitude of the Danes, who, with no sacrifice or efforts of their own, were placed by this measure on the path that led them, step by step, to the attainment—in 1849, under Frederik VII., the last of the Oldenburg kings—of a degree of political independence and constitutional security not exceeded in any other country.

In accordance with the so-called "Fundamental Law," passed June 5th, 1849, under the last named king, and confirmed under his successor, the reigning king, Christian IX., by the Diet on July 28th, 1866, Denmark is a constitutional monarchy. The same law vests the legislative power conjointly in the Sovereign and in the Rigsdag, or Diet, which is to consist of two Chambers, the Landsting and the Folkesting; the administrative authority resting with the king, and the executive judicial power with the

officers of the law. The king cannot without the consent of the Rigsdag accept regal dignities in any foreign State. He must profess the evangelical form of Lutheran Protestantism established in Denmark, and although he attains his majority at the age of eighteen, he cannot exercise any regal prerogative until he has by oath, and in writing, pledged himself, in the presence of the Council of State, to maintain the laws of the realm. He is irresponsible, and his person is sacred; and the succession is hereditary in the male line, conformably to the law of 31st July, 1853.

The Rigsdag, or National Diet, consists of two chambers, the Landsting and the Folkething, and is summoned annually by the king to hold an ordinary session of two months, which is to begin not later than the first Monday in October. Each chamber can propose and discuss a measure, but the king's consent is required to give the resolutions of the Diet legal efficacy; and under special urgent conditions the king may promulgate a provisional and temporary law.

Members of the Folkething are chosen by general election; every native-born Dane of unblemished repute, who has reached the age of thirty, and who has had a fixed residence for at least one twelve-month within the electoral circuit, being admissible

for election, unless he is in private service, is, or has lately been in the receipt of public alms, or has no share in, or control over the dwelling which he occupies. Every man on reaching the age of twenty-five may exercise the right of franchise. The number of members of the Folkething is in the proportion of one to every 16,000 inhabitants, and while the elections are triennial, the allowance granted by the State for the members during the sitting of the Diet amounts to 200,000 kr.

The Landsting, or Upper Chamber, consists of sixty-six members, twelve of whom are nominated for life by the king ; while seven are elected for eight years by the municipal wards of Copenhagen, forty-five by the larger electoral circles of the country districts, one in Bornholm as the representative of that island, and one by the Lagthing, or Provincial Chamber of the Farö Islands. The elections are made by deputies chosen by electors in each electoral circle, and all persons eligible for the Folkething are equally eligible for the Landsting, provided they have resided for a twelvemonth within the electoral circuit.

The Ministry is responsible, and each of its members may be called upon to answer for any law, or enactment, to which he has, *ex officio*, appended his name in attestation of the royal signa-

ture, which is required to give validity to the resolutions of the Diet. The king, with whom rests the choice of the ministry, may change at his pleasure the number of the ministers and the character of the portfolios entrusted to them, and, as at present constituted, the ministry consists of a President of the Council, and seven ministers, viz. for Foreign Affairs, War, Marine, Finance, Justice, Home Affairs, Church, and Education.

The king's executive prerogative includes that of nominating and dismissing men holding appointments under the state, declaring war and making peace, and entering into, and abrogating treaties of peace, war, or commerce ; the concurrence of the Rigsdag being required, however, in all cases involving the cession of any portion of the Danish dominions, or the modification of the existing integrity of the state.

For general administrative purposes, the kingdom is divided into eighteen "Amter" (Courts), each presided over by an Amtmand ; these Amts being Copenhagen, Fredericksberg, Holbeck, Sorö and Prestö in Seeland ; Rönne in Bornholm ; Maribo in Lolland ; Odense and Svendborg in Fyen ; Hjörning, Ålborg, Thisted, Viborg, Randers, Århus, Ringkjöbing, Vejle and Ribe in Jutland. The city of Copenhagen constitutes a special over-presidency ; and

while each Amt is further subdivided into Herreds and parishes, the kingdom, generally, is also considered administratively under the two distinct heads of "towns," (of which there are seventy-five with municipal rights), and "the country."

The budget for 1879—1880 showed an expenditure of forty-one million kr., the civil list absorbing one-and-a-half million kr.; and while the receipts were forty-six millions, the public debt was one hundred and seventy-six million kr.

The army in Denmark is maintained on the system of compulsory service, which is regulated in accordance with a law passed in 1867, requiring that every young man, on reaching the age of twenty-two, shall present himself for inscription to serve in the ranks. When on a war-footing, it is assumed that 48,000 men will be available for service, but in ordinary times this number is reduced to from 30,000 to 32,000. The army when complete numbers thirty battalions of infantry, of which twenty are on active service, and ten on the reserve list, which is liable to be drawn on for purposes of defence, and other extraordinary requirements. Each battalion numbers five brigades. The cavalry consists of five regiments, to each of which are attached two squadrons of the line on active service, and one on the reserve list.

The control of the entire military organization is vested in the Minister of War, but in time of peace the army is placed under the direction of two generals, whose respective circuits of command are separated by the Great Belt—the one having authority to the east, and the other to the west of that channel. These circles are subdivided into five lesser, so-called, “brigade circles” (two in the eastern and three in the western circuits), each of which is required to supply annually one brigade of infantry, one regiment of cavalry, and one brigade of artillery; while the Engineer Corps and the Life Guards’ Brigade are recruited from the whole kingdom generally.

All ranks of society are subject to the laws of recruiting, and only certain special family conditions, or physical infirmities, can afford exemption from the obligation of military service. If found on examination to satisfy the prescribed military requirements, the fresh recruits are drafted off into barracks to be drilled for a term, varying from four to nine or ten months, after which they may obtain home-leave, unless they are to be prepared for corporal’s duty, or are required for garrison service, in either of which cases they must serve from nine to twelve months longer. In Copenhagen, young men of good family are occasionally

allowed to take their meals in the houses of their parents, or others responsible for their conduct, instead of messing with the men in barracks, and recruits may likewise provide themselves with uniforms and accoutrements of better quality than those supplied by Government. After this period of obligatory drill, men are liable for eight years to be called out on active or reserve duty, and for a second term of eight years for extraordinary purposes of defence. During this period men are called out for exercise and field manœuvres for a specified number of days, and at periods fixed in accordance with the rules of the several branches of the service; the infantry in the line, and on the reserve list, being usually called out in rotation every other year, to the number of 800, for thirty or forty-five days, while 400 of the extraordinary reserve may, according to law, be called out for fifteen days' exercises within the ninth and twelfth year of their service. The cavalry are yearly called out for forty-five days with 110 men to the squadron, and the reserve horse for thirty days with 60 men to the squadron. On a war-footing each of the thirty line and reserve battalions, as well as that of the life guards, are to consist of 800 men, and the squadron of cavalry of 120. Officers begin their military training by

serving in the ranks, after which they must pass through the special military schools connected with the branch of the service to which they desire to attach themselves; the grade of first lieutenant being only attainable after two years' attendance at classes, to which ordinary lieutenants alone are admissible. After reaching the grade of a first lieutenant, subsequent advance to those of captain, colonel, and general is attainable by election, or in some cases by seniority.

The Danish navy is under the control of a responsible minister of marine, and its administration is divided into three departments, with the first of which rests promotion to all advanced ranks of the service, the nomination to offices of trust, medical appointments, and all matters connected with the construction of ships of war. The second, or admiralty-department, regulates the appointment of inferior officers, and is responsible for the efficiency of the pilot-system, and for all matters connected with lighthouses, docks, coast-guards, &c. while the third, or commissariat department, is responsible for the *matériel* of the fleet; pays officers and men, and is charged with the keeping of the papers and general accounts of the admiralty. The naval forces are divided into a corps of officers, a corps of artillery (135 men),

and a corps of ordinary seamen (1110 men), together with a body of men (about 500) belonging to the dockyards, and other works. The officers' corps, which is commanded by an admiral, has fifteen commanders, thirty-four captains, forty-seven first lieutenants, and an indefinite number of second, or reserve lieutenants while the two other corps are under a commander nominated from the officers' corps, and having by right of his rank the chief control of the dockyards. The minister of marine fills up the appointment of second, or reserve lieutenants for men-of-war, but the king nominates the higher officers.

The Danish fleet consists, according to recent official reports, of three iron-clad frigates, three floating batteries, two armour-clad ships, four frigates, three corvettes, twenty-eight armed cutters, &c., and twenty transports, carrying in all 300 cannon, and having in its thirty-five steam-propelled ships about 31,000 horse power.

No officer can be raised to the rank of a first lieutenant till he has reached the grade of second lieutenant, after having passed through the various stages of preliminary training in the naval colleges for cadets. When the exigencies of the service demand a larger number of reserve lieutenants than the cadet corps is able to supply, the de-

iciency is met by the nomination of such petty officers as are able to pass the requisite examinations. Similarly, the ordinary seamen serving in the navy are recruited from among the able-bodied men in certain fishing, and trading ports, liable by law to supply the fleet, while ordinary seamen, if able to pass the requisite examinations, may rise to the rank of petty officers.

In accordance with the law of the land, the established church in Denmark is the so-called "Evangelical form of Lutheran Protestantism;" although all forms of belief are tolerated, and no one is called upon to contribute towards the maintenance of a faith from which he dissents. The ministers of the various denominations may regulate their own internal affairs, but in matters affecting social order, public morals, &c., they are amenable to the control of the Minister for Religion. On reaching adolescence, young persons of both sexes must go through a preliminary course of religious instruction, under their respective pastors or ministers, preparatory to the act of confirmation in their several places of worship, which is regarded as the necessary completion of general education, and constitutes a requisite qualification for entering the public service, or following a special profession. Dissentients from the Established Church form

the minority. Thus there were in 1879 about 1550 Roman Catholics ; 5000 Jews ; 6000 Protestants, of the Calvinist, Reformed, and other forms of doctrine ; and about 2600 Mormons ; in all only about 15,500.

The Established Church has seven episcopal sees, viz. : Seeland ; Lolland and Falster ; Fyen ; Ålborg ; Viborg ; Århus ; and Ribe ; each of which is presided over by a bishop, with whom the local chief magistrate is associated for the consideration and settlement of questions of a secular nature referring to the parishes of the see. Each diocese is, moreover, divided into deaneries or provostships, respectively presided over by deans or provosts, who, together with the bishop, constitute the spiritual court of the see ; while each provostship is divided into pastorates, or "livings," many of which comprise two or three parishes. Bishops are nominated by the king at the recommendation of the Minister for Church and Instruction, the Bishop of Seeland, as primate of the Danish Church, receiving 12,000 kr. annually, while the other prelates have an annual income of about 8000 kr. Incumbents of town and country livings are elected by the municipal bodies, or by the private individuals on whose lands their churches are situated.

The laws at present in force in Denmark are based upon the code, reduced under Christian V. from the large number of special provincial codes, which previous to the reign of that king had prevailed in the numerous disjointed territories of which the kingdom of Denmark consisted in the 17th century. This compilation was promulgated, and came into force in the year 1683, under the title of *Almindelige Lovbog*, "General Code of Laws for the whole kingdom," and while few countries have been plagued in past times with a larger or more contradictory mass of legal enactments than Denmark, fewer still can boast of having reduced their legal system to so great a degree of simplicity.

The administration of the laws is vested in three courts, presided over by judges who cannot be deposed before the age of sixty-five unless by legal trial, nor transferred from one court to another without their own concurrence. In the First, or lowest, the judge is assisted by the local magistrates, and in Copenhagen this court has the exceptional power of awarding sentences without right of appeal. The Second court for the Islands is identical with the principal civic magistrate's court in Copenhagen, while Jutland has a special court of Second-Instance at Viborg. The Supreme Court of Third-Instance is in Copenhagen, but cases of

father. Thus a Hans or Marie, the children of a Hans Pedersen, were known as "Hans Hansen" and "Marie Hansdatter," the *sen* representing our affix "son," and *datter* meaning "daughter." The inconvenience of this practice, which prevailed universally among Scandinavians, was somewhat mitigated in the case of nobles, and other landed proprietors, as it was customary to use the name of the property belonging to the head of a family in connexion with the baptismal, and paternal names of each of his relatives. But where no land was held by a man himself, or by the representative-head of his family, as in the case of most burghers, the absence of this means of identification led to the greatest confusion. And we may, therefore, regard the enactment of Christian V., requiring all Danes and Norwegians to assume and keep to a family name, as among the most useful of the various arbitrary laws promulgated by this king, in the prosecution of his scheme for regenerating the social condition of his kingdom. Another of Christian's innovations was the creation of a new order of nobility which was chiefly exercised in favour of Germans, or of Danes of plebeian descent, who, while the old Danish nobility held aloof, were able to secure a footing at court; and hence from this period dates the introduction into Denmark of

numerous German names and titles. The titular system of 1671 recognized two grades of rank, that of Count, (*Grev*) and Baron. The holder of the former was assumed to be the owner of lands estimated at 2500 Hartkorn, and comprising from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 square miles Danish, with an assured capital of 2,000,000 rgdl. Few countships (*Grevskaber*), however, have reached this standard, although that of Frijsenborg, which still comprises more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, and is the largest in the kingdom, at one time so far exceeded the required limits that it embraced an area of more than 8 square miles. The title of baron was rather an indication of nobility, generally, based upon landed possessions, than one that carried with it any definite, and fixed requisition of property. But both grades of nobility acquired under Christian V. some privileges, which even the older nobles in their time of supremacy had not arrogated to themselves, as: signorial rights over the lives and property of the peasants born on their lands, the disposal of livings, and exemption from the payment of tithes and some forms of taxation. Under the novel arrangement of the social scale of Christian V. the king and his court were hedged in by ceremonial barriers impassable to all untitled persons, while the use of French so effectually superseded that of the

language of the country, that several of the kings of the 17th and 18th centuries could not speak a word of Danish. Nor was this system of exclusiveness, under which the moral and social characteristics of the nation had greatly deteriorated, wholly crushed till after the emancipation of the serfs, which was inaugurated in 1788 by Count Bernstorff, Prime Minister under Christian VII., through whom the Danish nobles were deprived of the obnoxious privileges granted them by Christian V., and the working classes were rescued from the abject dependence under which their energies had long been crushed. Not content with creating a titular nobility in Denmark, Christian V., as master of the ceremonies in perpetuity for his subjects, took care to reorganize the two principal Danish orders of knighthood; and these—the Order of the Elephant and that of the Dannebrog—continue with slight modifications to be regulated by the principles laid down for them by this zealous disciple of the school of Versailles etiquette. The Order of the Elephant, which was founded by Christian I., the father of the Oldenburg line, has long been reserved for royal and other highly distinguished individuals, and its badge, which is a white and gold enamelled and diamond-studded elephant, bearing a tower on its back, is worn on state occasions suspended from a

massive chain of alternate elephants and towers, similarly adorned.

Of less aristocratic pretensions, the order of the Dannebrog, which in our later degenerate days has been conferred somewhat lavishly as a complimentary recognition of various degrees of merit, can boast of a more ancient date, and is associated with the national ensign of Denmark, which, in its white cross on a blood-red field, commemorates a hard-fought victory, gained by the heroic Valdemar II. in his war, in 1219, against the pagan Wends. According to popular belief, the Dannebrog was miraculously displayed before the eyes of both armies at the moment when the Danes, with thinned numbers and failing strength, were, after a long day's fight, beginning to give way before the constantly renewed host of their enemies. At this critical moment, the sight of the emblem of his faith gave to each Christian Dane the strength of ten men, while the pagans fell back affrighted at the vision ; and before another day had dawned, the Dannebrog waved over the heads of thousands of Wendish converts, who had been signed with the cross by Andreas Sunesen, the pious Danish primate, to whose prayers on the field of battle his own times attributed the possession, by Denmark, of her cherished national standard.

CHAPTER IV.

Education — Earliest Enactments — Foundation of Schools and Gymnasias under Frederik IV. and Christian IV.—University of Copenhagen: its liberal organization — Art, and other Schools—The Danish Language: its origin and earliest modifications; its use in Norway—Recent measures for settling the spelling of Dano-Norwegian and Swedish—Literature: its earliest efforts; subsequent development — Holberg, Ewald, Oehlenschläger; their influence—Later writers—Art: its early dependence on foreign influences — Later Artists: Thorwaldsen, and Modern Painters.

EDUCATION for the many dates back in Denmark to the time of Christian II., who, in 1518, caused Free Schools for the poor to be established in the chief towns of Denmark and Norway. And in order that the country districts should not be left without means of instruction, he enjoined all priests and deacons to teach the poor children of their several cures "to read and write Danish, as well as to know the doctrines of the Christian faith." At the same time, the burghers were ordered to provide instruction for their children, not only in reading, writing, and ciphering, but also in some

handicraft, "that they might know how to earn their living, should evil fortune fall upon them."

The good work, begun under this ill-fated king, was allowed to fall into neglect under his successors, and although after the Reformation some portion of the revenues of the suppressed religious houses was appropriated to the founding and maintenance of a Latin School in every market-town, and several gymnasia and other public schools were established under Christian IV., and the earlier of the autocratic rulers, it was not till the beginning of the last century that the Danish kings manifested any earnest desire for the intellectual improvement of their subjects. At that period, however, under Frederik IV., who next to Christian IV. was the most energetic and patriotic of his race, a system of free schools was established in the country districts, as well as in the towns, which placed the means of instruction within reach of the poorest Danes. For a time the obstinacy with which the nobles resisted all efforts, made by the government, to extend the advantages of education to the children of serfs retarded the general success of Frederik's measures, and it was not till the complete abrogation of serfdom, in 1796, that the peasantry of Denmark were put in possession of the same benefits of free instruction,

which had been enjoyed for more than half a century by the poor in all the towns.

At the present time Denmark has one University, that of Copenhagen, founded in 1479, under Christian I. It has five faculties, and is managed by a Consistory, composed of professors chosen by election, or serving by right of seniority. All lectures are free to the public generally, with the exception of a few referring to purely professional subjects; and since 1875, women have had access, on equal terms with men, to all branches of the curriculum, and have enjoyed the right of graduation in all faculties but that of theology, in which the degree carries with it the licence to preach. Liberal provisions exist in the form of free dwellings, scholarships, and benefactions for helping indigent students, while the library and museums connected with the institution, which have of late years been brought up to the latest requirements of science, are easily accessible to all students. The public and private classical schools throughout the country conduct their teaching in harmony with the requirements of the University, whose professors and other representatives constitute a legally recognized body of general school-inspectors. The public schools in Copenhagen and elsewhere, which are maintained by communal rates

are partly paying, and partly free. In addition to these, there are the so-called United Church Schools, to which the best pupils, both girls and boys, of free poor-schools are promoted, and where they receive more advanced instruction, until the usual age of confirmation, after which they are discharged, provided with clothes and some small pecuniary help. Five seminaries are appropriated to the training of free-school teachers, and within the last few years about forty Peasant High-Schools have been established, with partial support from the government, for the teaching of history and other subjects not included in the Lower Free-School system of instruction. Admirable Technical and Art Schools are open to artisans in most of the provincial towns as well as in Copenhagen, while schools designed for religious instruction are rapidly increasing in number all over the country; as for instance Sunday Schools, which now number 125, with 11,000 pupils and 500 teachers, and which were founded in the capital, in 1800, by the Pastor Massman, to whom the government was indebted for many of the most important details of the existing system of national education.

In going back from the educational system of the Danes to the consideration of their national tongue, we find that the Danish language is a

modified form of the old Gothic, which was known in the earliest ages of which we have any cognizance as the *Norræna Mál*, "Northern," or *Dönsk Tunga*, Danish tongue. From Icelandic laws, bearing the date 1118, we learn that at that time Danes, Swedes, and Norsemen spoke the same tongue; while in the Icelandic of the present day we have, with only slight modifications, the form of speech used by the men who colonized Iceland in the 9th century. Of the three nations who spoke this one common tongue, the Danes were the first to deviate from the Old Northern, from which, moreover, their language differs more widely in the present day than the Swedish, or the few Norwegian dialects of which there are any survivals. The influence exerted on the language by Anglo-Saxon missionaries, and by the introduction, through Canute the Great, of many forms of higher culture with which he had become familiarized in England, is shown in the early deviation of Danish from Icelandic, and in its approximation to Old English, both in structure and in the form of numerous words not to be found in the other Scandinavian tongues. In the 13th century the language gives evidence of still more powerful Germanizing influences, which gained in force by the establishment, in the 15th century, of a German

dynasty, through which the language and usages of Germany secured a firm footing in Denmark. At this period, the dialect of Seeland, which is represented more nearly than those of Skåne and Jutland by modern Danish, had already modified its vowel-sounds; cast aside the Old Northern *th*; exchanged *k*, and *sk* for *c*, *ck*, and *sch*; dropped inflections; taken many German affixes; and otherwise deviated from the original mother tongue.

In speaking of Danish, it must be borne in mind that one and the same tongue has been common to Norwegians and Danes for centuries. The union of Norway and Denmark under one sceptre, from 1380 to 1814, together with the long period of civil war before that union in which nearly all the Norwegian nobility had been exterminated, had the inevitable result of thrusting back the various local Norse dialects into limited and isolated centres, and making the language of the Danes the speech of all cultivated Norwegians. Since the Reformation, one Bible and one Psalter have been used in common by both peoples; the same popular legends, proverbs, and national ballads have been current in both countries; and, till recently, the same school-books have served the youth of Norway, and of Denmark.

Before the beginning of the present century, the

neglect, into which the language had been gradually falling, and the preference shown by the higher classes for French and German, which were very generally used by Danish writers of the 18th century, had brought Dano-Norwegian into a condition of thorough disorganization. A remedy for these evils was first suggested in 1825 by the philologist, Rasmus Rask, who, in a treatise on the Old Northern, showed the extent to which Danish had deviated from the mother tongue, and pointed out the best means of arresting its further decadence. But the times were not favourable to the consideration of the changes he proposed, and it was left to the next generation to follow out his principles. These have, however, been now taken as the basis of the radical revolution to which the written language of the Scandinavian peoples was subjected in 1869. In that year, as the result of long pending discussions between university men belonging to the three countries, a Congress, composed of teachers, writers, and printers, selected from among the leading men of their respective classes in Sweden, Norway and Denmark, met at Stockholm, to consider how the various modes of spelling followed in these countries could be reduced to a definite system, through which the two severed branches of Scandinavian,—Swedish and

Dano-Norwegian—might be so far approximated as to make the literary productions of both alike accessible to the three nations. This scheme, which had its origin in a patriotic desire to draw more closely together the bonds of Scandinavian unity, and was based on scientific principles, has had the happy effect of arresting a condition of orthographic anarchy, in which each writer had felt himself free to follow his own inclinations, even to the point of being inconsistent in his practice. Reversion to the old mother tongue wherever the character of the modern derivative permitted, rejection of all superfluous letters and unnecessary alien elements, and the adoption of the Italian or Latin characters in printing and writing, were the objects principally aimed at by this linguistic revolution, in which the Danes have had to make the largest concessions. For this reason, perhaps, they have been less prompt than the Norwegians to accept the changes which their delegates at the meeting of 1869 had agreed to adopt, although the recent improvement in the spelling and printing of Danish books shows that the directors of the press in Denmark have become sensible of the absolute necessity of adopting some fixed rules of orthography, and that in regard to most essential points they are willing to accept the resolutions of the Stockholm Congress as authoritative.

The earliest specimens of Danish literature extant are the so-called Old and New Laws for Seeland and Jutland, compiled under Valdemar II. (1202—1241), and the “Medical Books” of Henrik Harpestreng, a monk of Roskilde, who died in 1244. In these compositions, and more especially in the last named, the language already shows less affinity to the Icelandic than to the present form of Danish. The characteristic inflection of nouns and verbs to mark differences of cases and persons has disappeared; the vowel system has been modified; and in general construction the language approximates to Anglo-Saxon. The 14th and 15th centuries have left us but few relics of Danish literature,—the “Rhyming Chronicle of Brother Niels of Sorö;” Herr Mikel’s translation of a few Latin monkish poems, and “Peder Låle’s Proverbs,” being all that can be referred to this period. The first is a rhythmical compendium of the Latin history of Denmark by the learned Saxo Grammaticus, and has little intrinsic merit; but the work ascribed to Låle, of whom we know nothing more than the name, is of the highest value, both for the light which it throws on the condition of the popular speech of the day, and the information which it affords of the habits and modes of thought of the people. Originally designed as a school book, and

to give translations of the Latin axioms used by teachers to exemplify grammatical rules, this collection of proverbs has become one of the most highly-treasured relics of early national literature. Its greatest rival in popular estimation is the so-called "Kæmpeviser," a collection of epic poems, mythic tales, and historical ballads, whose authors are unknown, and whose date cannot be precisely fixed, owing to their mode of transmission by word of mouth from one generation to another, by which the language was subjected to constant modifications, while the narrative probably also received a colouring from each age through which it passed.

To the early Reformers the language was largely indebted for the sudden development which it underwent in the sixteenth century, although Pedersen's translation of the Psalms and of the New Testament was marked by a great number of newly-introduced Germanisms, as was also the first translation into Danish of the entire Bible, made by Palladius and his coadjutors. In poetry there was as yet no appearance of greater development; translations of German hymns, and clumsy adaptations of Latin psalms, being nearly all the age produced excepting a Psalter, and a few poems composed by Anders Arrebro, Bishop of Trondhjem. The latter half of the 16th century gave Denmark,

in Vedel and Claussen, the first and not the least able of her annotators of earlier northern literature. To the former she is indebted for the first printed collections of the Danish mediæval *Kæmpeviser*, with valuable annotations, and for a translation of Saxo's History; and to the latter for a Danish version of Snorre Sturlesson's *Heimskringla*, as well as for a Descriptive History of Norway. Somewhat later, the Bartholins and Ole Worm treated of scientific and antiquarian subjects in Danish, and thus inaugurated a new era in the national literature, to which the 17th century added but little; although Peder Syv, by his collections of Danish and Norwegian proverbs, and his treatises on Danish Grammar, did good service to those who practised the art of writing; and Thomas Kingo, in his admirable Psalm-book, presented Danes and Norwegians with a treasury of devotional poetry, to which they clung, generation after generation, with reverent tenacity.

The beginning of the 18th century marks a turning-point in the literary history of Denmark, for to this period belongs Ludvig Holberg, the wit, satirist, and dramatist, to whom Denmark owes not only her national theatre, but the very existence of a modern national literature. To him, more than to any other writer of the age, she was indebted

for the conviction that her vernacular Dano-Norwegian could be used, as aptly as German, for the discussion of scientific questions, and the elucidation of learned subjects, and that it was as capable of giving expression to satire, wit, and poetry as the French tongue, which had hitherto been regarded as the sole medium of dramatic interpretation. "The Political Pewterer" was the first of his thirty plays produced on the Copenhagen boards, and from its earliest appearance, in 1722, to the present time, Holberg's dramas have retained their place on the stage, and their hold on the sympathies of their hearers. Yet, in spite of the service rendered to national dramatic art by the creation of plays, whose sparkling wit and faithful representations of the salient features of contemporary life were not exceeded by those of any other writer, the craving for reproductions from the French stage did not diminish till half a century later, when Wessel, in a mock tragedy, called "Love without Stockings," gave a decisive blow to the affected taste for stilted heroics and the classical unities.

The latter half of the 18th century produced a great number of good writers. Some of these, as the historians, Langebek and Suhm, wrote in Latin, but a new generation was springing up who were

destined to give fresh vigour to the Danish language. Among these we may instance Rahbek, the founder of Danish periodical and critical literature ; Ewald, who in " Rolf Krage " gave Denmark her first tragedy, and in his well-known song, " King Christian stood by the High Mast," supplied words for her national anthem, and who ranks as the first among the cultivators of lyrical poetry, in which he has found an able follower in recent times in Christian Winther ; Baggesen, the most prolific of Danish poets ; and various other authors, as Nyerup, Abrahamson, and Thorlacius, who, by their devotion to the study of the language and older history of Denmark, contributed to kindle the flame of patriotism that suddenly gave colour and warmth to the national literature. In the midst of political decadence and national adversity, when writers turned to the story of past times for inspiration, Oehlenschläger made the names of half-forgotten northern heroes familiar as household words, while his plays, which still stand at the head of the classical drama of Denmark, are, moreover, quite as noteworthy for the beauty of the language, as for the patriotism which breathes through them. Inspired by similar feelings, the pastor Grundtvig, with the spirit of an old Bearsark, assailed everything foreign, fighting fiercely to uphold his views

in regard to the language and literature of his country, to which he contributed numerous works, while he stirred the long dormant religious feeling of the nation by his impassioned expositions of his theories of Christian faith. Ingemann in the meanwhile wrote novels after the style, but not with the humour, of Scott, and took his subjects from the times of the Valdemars and their descendants. Apart from writers of this intensely national school, Danish literature was permanently enriched by the works of men such as the brothers, A. Oersted and H. C. Oersted, the former of whom wrote on the ancient and modern laws of Denmark, while the latter has secured for himself a world-wide reputation as the discoverer of a realm of previously undetected forces in Nature. Turning to other branches of learning, we find Rask and Molbek, who in the past generation made invaluable additions to our knowledge of the primary and derivative languages of Northern Europe, while Madvig and Westergård in our own times have become authoritative guides in the study of Latin, and of Eastern languages. Thomsen, Petersen, and Worsaae have materially contributed by their works and researches to give Denmark the place she occupies in the history of palæontology and archæology ; while in physical and other scientific literature, Eschricht,

Panum, Steenstrup, Forchhammer, and Erslev have made their names honourably known to their scientific brethren in other countries. In theology, the works of Mynster, Münter, and Martensen have gained the respect of recent foreign biblical critics. In the lighter fields of poetry and fiction, the name of Hans C. Andersen stands prominent as that of a writer whose works have become the heritage of the whole civilized world, and who, in his *Tales*, struck a new vein in literature, which, although repeatedly followed, has not yet been reached by others. In dramatic composition and criticism, the Heiberg family have done good service; in purely national fiction, Blicher, the translator of "*Ossian*," takes a prominent place; and among recent and living poets, Paludan Muller stands foremost as a writer of epic poetry, Winther as a lyricist, and Ploug as a composer of political and other songs; while in Georg Brandes Denmark has a litterateur, and a critic, whose subtle analyses of the relative merits, and predominant influences of the different schools of European literature, have secured him an equally extensive reputation among Germans, to whom his mastery of their language enables him to address himself as forcibly as to Danes.

Danish art scarcely existed till recent years,

and in earlier times Denmark was wholly dependent on Germany for materials and workmen, in every department of art. From the Reformation till the middle of the present century few churches were built, except during the brief period of Christian IV.'s reign, while the various restorations, to which the old cathedrals and parish churches were subjected, were nearly all conspicuous for a want of taste, that savoured of barbarism. The various *renaissance* houses to be found on the estates of the nobles are probably the work of Dutchmen, or of North Germans ; and in domestic architecture, the castles and public buildings, erected under Frederik II., and his son Christian IV. (between 1570 and 1640), for which they often gave the designs, are perhaps all that can be claimed as Danish. Fires and bombardments have, however, left little standing that belonged to their times but the castles of Cronborg, and Rosenborg, and the Exchange at Copenhagen, and these are, perhaps, the only genuinely Danish public buildings in or near the Capital. The two centuries that separate Christian's times from our own have yielded nothing but poor imitations of Italian architecture and decoration, thoroughly out of keeping with their surroundings. In recent years, however, Denmark has given evidence that a new generation of native artists had

sprung up in her midst, among whom honourable mention must be made of Harsdorff, the Hansens, Malling, Herholdt, Nebelong and Bindesböll, who have all contributed to give Copenhagen its present improved appearance, and to some of whom the country is indebted for admirable restorations of its oldest churches.

In Bertel Thorvaldsen, Copenhagen claims to have given birth to the greatest sculptor of modern ages. His fame belongs, however, less to his native country than to Rome, where he spent nearly all his life, and where his hand was trained, and his sense of beauty developed. His creations in Christian art, generally, can scarcely be said to equal those in which he embodied his conceptions of Olympian myths, and Odinic legends; yet, in the opinion of many, the Christ, the Baptismal Angel, and the Apostles, now in the Frue Kirke at Copenhagen, are among the very best of his works. Thorvaldsen made his native city his heir, and in the Museum, which is at once the depository of the noblest productions of his genius, and the mausoleum in which his remains rest, Denmark possesses an invaluable art-school, to whose influence she is indebted for men such as Freund, Bissen, and Jerichau. With the close of the first quarter of our century, when Thorvaldsen had

reached the zenith of his fame, Danish painting found its earliest really meritorious representatives in Lund and Eckersberg, the latter of whom, severing himself wholly from the rigidly precise style of his master, Abilgård,—who has the merit of having been Thorvaldsen's earliest teacher,—became the leader of a new school, founded on the practice of David, under whom he had studied in Paris. From this school came several good workers, as Petzholdt, the landscape-painter ; Kühler, and Rörby, whose *genre* pictures have some merit ; Constantin, Hansen, Marstrand, &c. The two last named, with others—as Exner, Vermehren, Dalsgård and C. Bloch,—give evidence of that sudden outburst of fervent patriotism which was called forth by the events of 1848, and by the disastrous termination of the subsequent war with Germany. Since this period a change for the better has been perceptible. Danish artists have become more national in the choice of their subjects, and their works have gained proportionally in originality and truth to Nature. Thus, while Hansen and Hilker have chosen incidents of local interest for their admirable frescoes, in the University Hall at Copenhagen, Exner and Bloch have gone back to Danish history for their subjects, although the latter, owing to his labours in the newly-restored church

at Frederiksborg has, for the moment, turned aside from this direction to complete the series of biblical pictures intended to replace those which perished in the fire of 1859.

In the comparatively recent cultivation of sea-pieces, good work has been done by the Melbyes, Lundbyes, and others; while in landscape-painting, Skovgård, Neumann, Meyer, and Sonne, have distinguished themselves, more especially where they have taken local scenery as the framework of their representations of every-day northern life.

CHAPTER V.

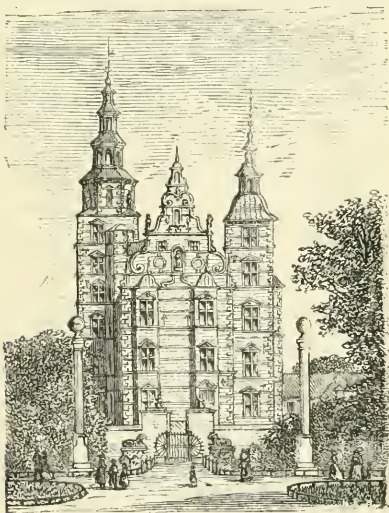
Seeland : its relation to the other States—Copenhagen : its population, position, and character—Its main divisions—The palaces of Rosenborg, Christiansborg, and Amalienborg—The churches and cemeteries—The University : its faculties and schools—The public libraries and their contents—Art Collections—The Thorvaldsen, and Northern Antiquities Museum—Hospitals—The theatres : their influence and character—Tivoli : its successful management.

SEELAND (Dan. *Sjælland*), which has an area of about 2,700 square miles, with 700,000 inhabitants, and is bounded to the south by the Baltic, to the east by the Sound, and to the north-west by the Cattegat and the Great Belt, constitutes, through its geographical position, a main link of intercommunication between Eastern Europe and the rest of the maritime world. During the eight hundred years that Skåne, Halland, and Bleking formed an integral part of Denmark, Seeland, with the capital, Copenhagen, was the natural centre of the kingdom, but since those provinces were, in 1658, permanently united to Sweden, this island has become the eastern boundary of the Danish

dominions. It still ranks first among the Danish States as the site of the capital, Copenhagen, which, with its suburbs Frederiksberg, Amager, &c., has a population of 250,000, and is situated on the eastern side of the island, at a point where the Sound begins to widen before it expands into the Bay of Kjöge. The city is built on either side of a deep channel forming an admirable open harbour, and lying between the main-land and the little island of Amager, which are connected by two bridges, the Langebro and Knippelsbro. Thus placed it may be regarded as a city of islands, for while canals intersect its southern and eastern extremities, and carry ships close to the central square, known as Kongens Nytorv, a line of fresh and brackish water lakes extends northward and north-east as far as the Österbro, where they are bounded by the great "Strand-vej," or Strand-road, and are separated from the waters of the Sound by only a narrow strip of land, which in recent years has been converted into a suburb of sea-side villas.

The square of Kongens Nytorv may be characterized as the debateable ground between old and new, commercial and fashionable, Copenhagen. On the south and west lies the district of the old palace of Christiansborg, the principal business

streets, markets, and harbour-works ; to the east and north extends the comparatively new quarter of Frederiksstad, which has its centre in Amalienborg, a square, in which the reigning royal family resides. This district, which owes its origin to the great fire of 1794, has well-built, wide streets, and enjoys the advantage of being within easy reach of the "Lange Linie," and the other public walks and drives, which have taken the place of the old lines of defences, whose demolition has contributed alike to



ROSENBORG CASTLE

the health and the beauty of the city, which possesses the peculiar attraction of having no conspicuously poor or squalid districts. The most interesting of its buildings is the palace of Rosenborg, which, with its nobly-wooded gardens, is now in the very heart of the city, although when it was built, in 1604, by Christian IV., it lay on the country side of the walls, and was designed by that energetic sovereign as a rural retreat from the noise and bustle of his town residence in the Christiansborg of his days. As a specimen of the florid *renaissance* style of the 17th century, Rosenborg is unparalleled in Denmark, and perhaps even in Northern Europe; and as the depository of the so-called Danish National Chronological Museum, it possesses a very high interest from a sociological point of view. This collection, which dates from the death of Christian IV., in 1648, and includes various objects of interest that had belonged to his father, Frederik II., has been continued in an unbroken series to the close of the reign of the last Danish king, in 1863; while its present admirable arrangement is due to the talent for organization and technical knowledge of Professor Warså, and of its actual director, Herr Carl Andersen. The Danish regalia are preserved here; and these,—with the silver and narval coronation seats guarded by silver lions, and innumerable

treasures of art, some of which are priceless,—afford a striking proof of the incongruity, existing under the autocratic rulers of Denmark, between the wealth and lavish expenditure of the kings, and the general poverty of the nation, for during the two centuries in which these costly objects were procured, the Danish people were ground down by taxation, and the State was nearly bankrupt. The gardens of Rosenborg are a favourite resort of the youth of Copenhagen, whose eyes will henceforth be gladdened by the sight of the monument which has recently been erected to the memory of H. C. Andersen, who is represented in the act of relating one of his own tales to a group of eager young listeners. Far more modern than Rosenborg, and conspicuous for size rather than for any other quality, is Christiansborg Palace, which is built on a small island in the south part of the town, overlooking markets and wharves, and is the centre, within and around which the life of the capital ebbs and flows. The “Slotsholm,” or castle-island, has been occupied through ages by successive royal residences, the last of which, after half a century’s existence, was burnt in the fire of 1794, which only spared a few of the halls and numerous suites of rooms that had been constructed for ceremonials of state, and to give a habi-

tation to the royal family, and to 1000 attendants of all ranks. The present building, which is no longer a royal residence, although the more formal court-receptions are held here, is the seat of the Legislative Chamber, or Diet, and of the chief Court of Justice, as well as of the finance and other ministries, while it also contains the king's private library and the great public library, the national armoury, a picture-gallery, and various other public collections.

The palaces of Amalienborg, to which the Danish Court removed after the fire, owe their origin to the desire expressed by Frederik V. that the nobles should take up their abode in the north-east quarter of the town, which he was building. In obedience to his wish, Counts Levetzow and Moltke, the Dowager Countess of Schack, and Baron Brockdorff, caused four palaces, uniform in size and appearance, to be built in 1760, in an octagonal square, known as Amalienborg. The building originally owned by Countess Schack is the residence of the present king, Christian IX., while the other palaces are in the occupation of the crown prince, the dowager queen, and the minister for foreign affairs.

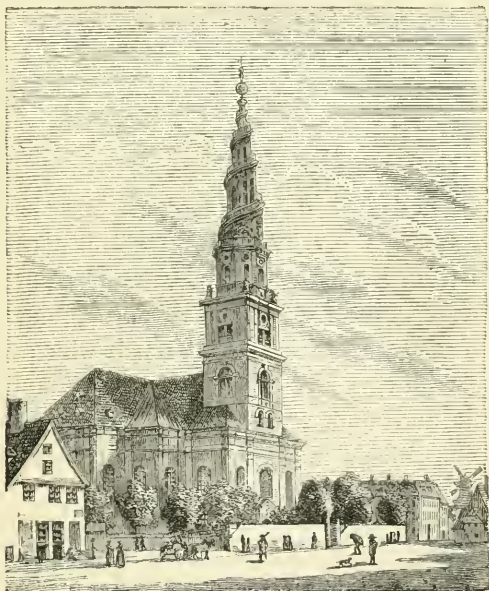
Copenhagen never possessed any churches remarkable for architectural beauty, and those which

were noteworthy from historical or other associations have either been wholly destroyed, or greatly injured, by one or other of the various calamities which have visited the capital. But among the latter, special attention is due to Vor Frue-Kirke, "Our Lady's," the oldest and best endowed church in Copenhagen, which was founded in the twelfth century, and after the foundation of the University, in 1479, was regarded as the special church of the students, and where from this period till the establishment of absolute sovereignty, in 1660, the successive kings and queens were crowned. The older building was nearly consumed in the fire of 1728, and the splendid structure by which it was replaced was still more completely destroyed in the bombardment of 1807. To these succeeded the present building, an extremely plain structure of a so-called Græco-Roman style of architecture, whose only merit consists in its being the depository of some of Thorvaldsen's best works, for here, above the altar, stands his celebrated figure of Christ with outstretched arms, while his equally well known "Baptismal Angel" kneels at the chancel steps; and the twelve Apostles, ranged on either side of the nave, lead the way towards the central figure, that gives completeness to the whole design.

Trinity Church, which is an indifferent specimen of pointed Gothic, was built in the time of Christian IV., to serve as a church for the students of the University, whose library was deposited in its lofts and galleries, while its tower, known as the "Runde Tårn," was intended to serve the purposes of an astronomical observatory. This singular structure, whose outer wall bears the inscription, "Doctrinam et justitiam direge Jehovah in Corde Coronati regis Christiani Quarti 1642," is said to have been built after a design of the Danish astronomer, Langberg (Longomontanus), and is remarkable for the broad and gradually ascending passage, which takes the place of stairs within the tower, and is so smooth and easy of ascent, that there is no reason to doubt the popularly credited tale that Peter the Great, on a visit in Copenhagen, rode up it on horseback to the platform of the observatory, while the Empress Catherine made the ascent in a carriage drawn by four horses. But while Trinity Church is remarkable for an unusual means of internal ascent, Vor Frelzers Kirke, "Our Saviour's," is conspicuous for equally unique external winding stairs, which, although steep, can be followed without danger to the top. The fatigue of the ascent is well repaid by the extensive views which it affords in one

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direction far over Seeland, and in another across the Sound, to the Swedish districts of Malmö and Lund. This church was consecrated in 1696, but the colossal figure of the Saviour on its summit, bearing a banner of victory in His right hand and standing on a globe, with the four Evangelists at the corners of the square base of the tower, was not put into its place till 1752.



VOR FRELSER'S KIRKE.

Holmens Kirke, originally a chapel for the

dock-yards men, was raised to the dignity of a parish church by Christian IV., in 1642, and thoroughly restored in 1872. Its most remarkable feature is a long mortuary chapel, built on the Holms Canal which bounds the church enclosure. Within this building, which lacks all architectural dignity, stand the two sarcophagi which enclose the remains of Denmark's greatest sea heroes, Niels Juel, and Peder Vessel, better known by his title of Tordenskjold. On the monument of the former, who died in 1697, eight great *bas-reliefs* represent the principal events connected with his most brilliant exploits in the Swedish wars, while the black marble sarcophagus of Tordenskjold, who fell in a duel in 1720, bears no other epitaph than the words "Dynekilen," "Marstrand" and "Elfsborg," which recall to Danes familiar with the history of their country (and who among them is not ?) the story of the daring deeds which raised the sailor-boy, Peder Vessel, to the rank of an admiral, and under the name of Tordenskjold, "Thunder-shield," made him a terror to the enemy and a veritable shield to his country.

The Holmens Kirke contains, besides a gateway taken from the old cathedral at Roskilde, a few objects worthy of notice, as the monument to Fru Falsen by Thorvaldsen, and that of the Hoppe

family by his master, Wiedewelt. The burying-ground belonging to this church lies, like all the other cemeteries, beyond the walls of the city, and as it was consecrated in 1666, it is one of the oldest, as it is one of the most interesting of the several well-kept graveyards of Copenhagen. One of its most striking monuments is the barrow raised to the memory of the officers and men who fell in the sea-battle with the English, on April 2, 1801. In the Garnisons Assistenskirkegård, which is near the former, lie buried, besides various other distinguished military and naval men, a great number of those who died fighting for their country in the Slesvig-Holstein campaigns, while in the "Assistenskirkegård," on the Nørrebro, which may be regarded as the principal burying-ground of civilians of eminence, rest, among a crowd of their less well-known compatriots, Rasmus Rask, the philologer; H. C. Oersted, the discoverer of electromagnetism; J. G. Forchhammer, the mineralogist; G. Eschricht, the physiologist; and H. C. Andersen, the writer.

Opposite to the Frue-Kirke stands the principal wing of the University buildings, which occupy the site of the cathedral school-house in which the University, founded by Christian I., in 1479, was forced for want of better quarters to carry on the

work of teaching. This king had intended to erect suitable buildings for the Danish Alma Mater, but having spent the money designed for this purpose on a journey to Rome, which he undertook to obtain a bull from Sixtus IV. for the founding of the University, the professors and students were long left without lecture-halls, or endowments of any kind; and in course of time were forced to meet in the old town-hall, of which some portions still exist in the so-called Consistorium in the Nørregade, which are consequently the most ancient buildings in Copenhagen. The present structure has replaced an earlier one, which was destroyed in the bombardment of 1807, and while the general design is good, the interior is especially worthy of notice for the size of its various halls, the excellence of the arrangements, and the artistic finish of the decorations, which include some good frescoes by Hansen, Hilker and Marstrand. Connected with the University are four free student-houses, the "Regensen" founded by Christian IV., and the colleges Ehler, Borch, and Valkendorff, so named after their respective founders.

In most of the faculties the teaching fully meets the requirements of the age, and few cities of the same size as Copenhagen can afford the student in

science greater advantages. The more cultivated classes in Denmark are agreed in regard to the extreme importance of bringing the standard of education up to the highest point reached in other countries, and on several occasions the Diet has liberally responded to this sentiment, as in 1856, when it voted a grant of 194,000 kr. for the reorganization of the chemical laboratory of the University, and again in 1867, when it granted 52,000 kr. towards the founding of the physical laboratory ; but it cannot be denied that the position assumed of late years by the Folkething, with reference to all questions affecting the higher branches of culture, warrants the apprehension that a hard *Kultur Kamp* is impending over the Danes. Yet the party of the extreme left, which refuses to recognize the claims of academic learning and high art to the support of the State, shows itself keenly alive to the advantages to be gained from such institutions as the Agricultural College, and the Technological schools of Copenhagen, the latter especially receiving frequent aid from the Diet. And it must be admitted that the favour shown by the peasants to these institutions is well merited, for while the former is teaching them to substitute rational principles for the profitless, hap-hazard ways of farming which

they had previously followed, the latter are conferring on artisans, in every department of industry, advantages which it requires no high degree of culture to appreciate.

In the management of its libraries, Copenhagen shows the same consideration for the general public that characterizes most of its educational institutions, the reading-rooms being open to all classes of readers, and the loan of books allowed under certain simple restrictions. The Royal Library, which has escaped fire—the fate of most public buildings in Denmark—and still occupies the gloomy building erected for it by Frederik III., in 1667, contains 500,000 printed volumes and 20,000 MSS., which are distributed in nine large rooms, and classified under the heads of Scandinavian and Foreign Literature. The former is especially rich in early Danish books (from 1482); while the MS. department, amongst other treasures of northern literature, contains the earliest copies of the Eddas; the Icelandic code of laws, known as “Graygoose;” and various interesting series of letters belonging to the middle ages, which have been derived from the private collections of some of the Danish nobles.

Next in size, although scarcely second in importance, is the University Library, with which has been incorporated, since 1867, the valuable collection of

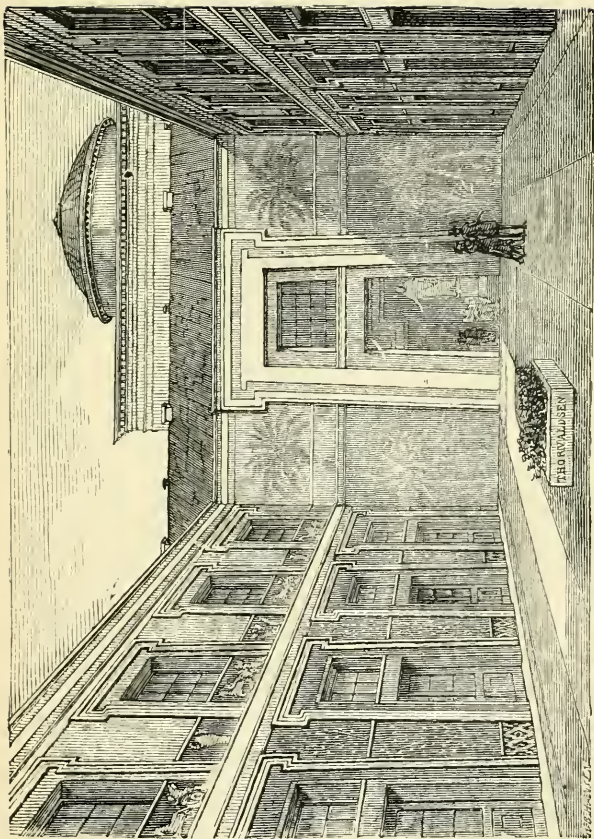
General Classen, and which now consists of 200,000 volumes and 4000 MSS. It is only the growth of a century and a half, the original library,—with all its treasures, excepting a few MSS. which had been lent out,—having been destroyed in the fire of 1728. Among its greatest treasures is the collection of Icelandic and Scandinavian MSS., bequeathed to it in 1730, by the learned Professor Arne Magnussen ; the rare Sanscrit Zend, and Pali remains brought home by the philologist R. Rask ; and, besides many other literary and typographical curiosities, the only complete copy of the Rhyming Chronicle, printed in 1495 ; and the oldest collection of the *Kæmpeviser* (Ribe, 1591).

High art is decidedly less well represented in Copenhagen than literature, and with the exception of the Thorvaldsen Museum, which is unique of its kind, there is no important collection. The city has only two galleries of paintings, the “Royal,” in Christiansborg Palace, and the private gallery of Count Moltke. The former contains a number of the works of modern Danish artists, with some good pictures of the Dutch school, and the latter almost exclusively works emanating from the same school. The Royal Collection of Engravings deserves notice for its undoubtedly genuine Albert Dürers and Raimondis, and also for the interesting

series of portraits of Christian IV., and his immediate successors and contemporaries, by the Dane, Hælweg.

The Academy of Arts holds its meetings, and has its annual exhibitions of paintings, in Charlottenborg-Slot, on Kongens Nytorv, an ill-designed, inconvenient, cast-off royal residence, unsuitable for the purposes to which it is applied. The want of appropriate buildings for the Danish Academy is universally regretted, but no change can be made in the present unsatisfactory arrangements until the Diet arrives at the long hoped-for decision of granting the funds, necessary for erecting a new Academy.

The Thorvaldsen Museum, which every Dane regards with the pride of individual possession, contains not only the works, but the grave of the sculptor; and here, in an inner court—open to the skies, and enclosed by the walls within which are preserved all the works that he bequeathed to his native city—may be seen the ivy-covered stone, surmounted by a black cross, which marks the last resting-place of Bertel Thorvaldsen. The design followed in the building is that of an ancient Greek mausoleum, modified to suit the local requirements of site and climate. But its position on the "Slotsholm," with canals enclosing it on all sides, is so



THORVALDSEN'S GRAVE.



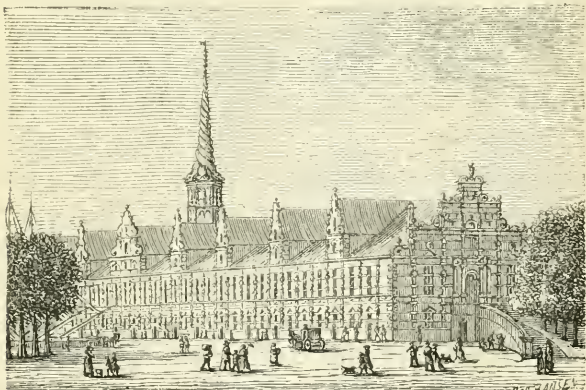
detrimental to it, that although only completed in 1848, it has suffered greatly from damp, while the inappropriateness, in northern countries, of out-of-door wall-paintings is made manifest by the appearance of the great frescoes intended to represent the public reception of Thorvaldsen on his final return to Denmark, in 1838, after an absence of eighteen years, for these paintings are so injured by weathering as to have lost their softer tints, and acquired a coarse, blotchy appearance. The forty rooms of the interior, which, with galleries and vestibules, contain eighty statues chiselled by Thorvaldsen himself, are arranged with great taste, and decorated in harmony with the character of the principal figure, or group, which forms the central point of attraction in each compartment. And these, with numerous busts, reliefs, and friezes, modelled by his hand, together with innumerable objects of personal interest, combine to impart to the Thorvaldsen Museum a character of national and artistic importance, unparalleled by any other modern art-collection.

Turning from modern to early art, we find in the Museum of Northern Antiquities a collection of the greatest possible scientific value. Indeed, no other country possesses so complete a series of objects, illustrating the consecutive stages of de-

velopment reached by its inhabitants, in their progress from a savage to a civilized condition. This invaluable collection, which occupies a number of rooms in the Prince's Palace, another disused royal residence, that has passed into the possession of the State, and is now converted into a depository of various kinds of public property, owes its origin, in 1807, to the exertions of Professor Nyerup, and now numbers upwards of 40,000 objects, some of which, either from their character, or the intrinsic value of the materials and workmanship, have helped to throw important light on ethnological inquiry. Under the direction of such able archæologists as Thomsen, Engelhart, and Worså, the museum has acquired a world-wide reputation; and to them, and other Danish *savants*, science is mainly indebted for the idea, followed out in this collection, of considering such remains in reference to the three distinct periods now familiar to us under the terms of the Stone, Bronze, and Iron age. The Ethnographic Museum, under the same roof, may almost vie with its older associate in interest and scientific value; and under its present director, Herr Carl Andersen, its individual sections have been greatly increased, the Greenland department being especially interesting on account of the great variety of its native-made models, repre-

senting the domestic habits of the people. And since the "Chronological Collection of the Danish Kings" at Rosenborg, already referred to, has been made to form a direct link with the latter and with the Museum of Northern Antiquities, the three have supplied a perfect and unbroken series from pre-historic times to our own day.

Copenhagen is liberally provided with free hospitals and charitable institutions of every kind, but excepting the Communal Hospital, finished in 1863, which is one of the largest and most prominently placed buildings in the city, none have any architectural attraction. Indeed, the same may be said in regard to the public buildings



BÖRSEN.—THE EXCHANGE.

generally, excepting only the Exchange (Börsen), a fine specimen of a slightly *rococo* form of *renaissance*, built in 1640, by Christian IV., to provide a row of shops for the Christiansborg district. It is a long, somewhat low building, studded roof and walls with windows, dormers, gables, and decorated sills and copings, and presenting its most peculiar characteristic in the spire of its central tower, which is formed by four entwined dragons, whose heads serve as its base, and whose tails meet at the summit. In 1853 it passed by sale to the Company of "Danish Merchants and Stockbrokers," who are bound by the State to maintain it in its original form.

Copenhagen has only one private residence of even a moderate degree of antiquity, the so-called Dyveke Gård, on the Amager Torv, a high, and handsome gabled house, long believed to have been the home of Christian II.'s mistress, but now known to have been built nearly a century after her death for the burgher, M. Hansen, a worthy citizen, who, happily for himself and others, did not exert so fatal an influence on the destinies of his country as the "Dyveke." This ill-fated maiden, who died early, before any heavy troubles had befallen her royal lover, was first seen by Christian when he took part in the public entertainments by which the citizens of Bergen welcomed his landing in Norway, whither he was sent in 1501,

by his father, King Hans, to rule in his name ; and in allusion to this meeting between Christian and Dyveke, "the Dove," an old historian remarks: "Surely no prince ever paid so dear for a dance as King Christian of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, since this one dance with the Dutch Dove cost him his three crowns, and danced him out of his kingdoms into a dungeon."

In Copenhagen, dramatic art occupies a higher place than has been accorded to it in any other city of modern times, and, both to the present, and past generations of Danes, the boards of the Royal Theatre have proved a veritable school of patriotism. Here the national drama acquired new life, and a hitherto unknown significance, under the hands of such writers as Ewald and Oehlenschläger, whose tragedies, treating chiefly of mythic or heroic Danish history, are still received with enthusiasm ; while the comedies of Holberg, although dealing with the follies of a society that passed away a century ago, continue to attract crowded audiences, more perhaps on account of the patriotic feeling that has added a sharper sting to the wit, than for the intrinsic merits of the plays. The Royal Theatre, which is both an Opera and Play House, has necessarily a varied repertoire, but the foreign element is entirely subservient to the genuinely national character which distin-

guishes it. And in no department of theatrical representation is this more forcibly shown than in the ballet, which under the form given to it by Bournonville, fifty years ago, has been converted into a species of dumb poetry, in which incidents, taken from the Odinic mythology, or from early northern history, are interpreted by dancing and gesture, to which a special charm is given by the admirable musical accompaniments which Hartmann, and other Danish composers, have written for these pieces. The present Royal Theatre was built in 1874, on the site of the old house, that had stood since 1774 on the Kongens Nytorv. It is an imposing-looking building, admirably well arranged to secure the convenience both of actors and audience, and in its excellent management, and the high character of its players and its plays, it has justified its claim to retain the chosen motto of the older house, "Ej blot til Lyst," "Not only for pleasure." The Folketheater limits itself chiefly to light comedy; while in the Casino, where the best concerts are given, the witty vaudevilles of Bøgh form the chief attraction. The one place of entertainment, however, to which the palm of excellence is popularly awarded, is "Tivoli," which in the eyes of Danes ranks almost as a national institution; nor is that character wholly to be denied to it, since no other capital of Europe

possesses public gardens in which the young and old of every rank can so readily enter into a variety of amusements suited to their different tastes. This establishment consists of well laid-out grounds, interspersed with theatres, concerts, halls, bazaars, restaurants, and other buildings, occupying a portion of the old ramparts outside the west gate of the city. And thus far it has enjoyed a degree of exceptional success which must, in part at any rate, be ascribed to the good behaviour and the general high tone of a Copenhagen crowd, and might be unattainable in any country less noteworthy than Denmark for the culture of its working classes.

CHAPTER VI.

Suburbs of Copenhagen—Its many pleasant public gardens—Charlottenlund—King's Summer Palace—The Dyrehave : its Fair—The Eremitage—Mania of kings for building—Hirschholm, favourite retreat of Queen Caroline Matilda—Eenrum—Charles XII.'s well—Frederiksborg : its position ; its restoration since the fire ; its Gardens—Esrom Lake : its surroundings—Fredensborg : its history and appearance ; the Gardens—Amager, the Danish Kitchen Garden—Christianshavn : the Arsenal and Docks—History of the City.

DANES generally take but little pleasure in walking or in athletic sports, but they have more than a southerner's delight in an out-of-doors *dolce far niente* state of existence, and the first tender green of the beech-woods sees all Copenhagen pouring forth into the country, which, near the city, is specially rich in public parks and gardens, where the people can indulge their national passion for passing the long summer days in the open air. These parks are, or have been, attached to some royal residence, which has either been demolished, or made publicly useful, as Frederiksborg Slot, west of Tivoli, where a military college, with gymnasium and class-rooms, occupies the building erected by Frederik IV. as the summer quarters of his Court. And here the beautiful

gardens provide the citizens with the most picturesque of lounging-places, and serve as the freest of play-grounds to town children, who have outgrown the limits of the Rosenborg gardens, which are universally recognized as the kindergarten of the Danish capital.

These pleasant spots, which owe their origin to the passion for building and landscape-gardening, that seems to have been hereditary in the Oldenburg line of princes, nearly all lie on the north-east of the city, on, or near the road skirting the Sound, and known as the "Strand-vej." And here, for ten or twelve miles, stretches an almost unbroken line of country-houses, villas, "restorations," tea-gardens, bathing-places, palaces, fishing-hamlets, and parks, among which Charlottenlund and the Dyrehave, which are accessible by a special railway line, as well as by the Strand road, are decidedly the most popular. In the former, familiarly called Skoven, "The Wood," stands the summer-home of the Crown Prince, but this in no way interferes with the freedom with which the citizens wander through the woods; nor do any restrictions bar the access to the neighbouring park of Bernstorff, where the king and queen hold their summer court, and where a republican simplicity marks the relations maintained between sovereign and people.

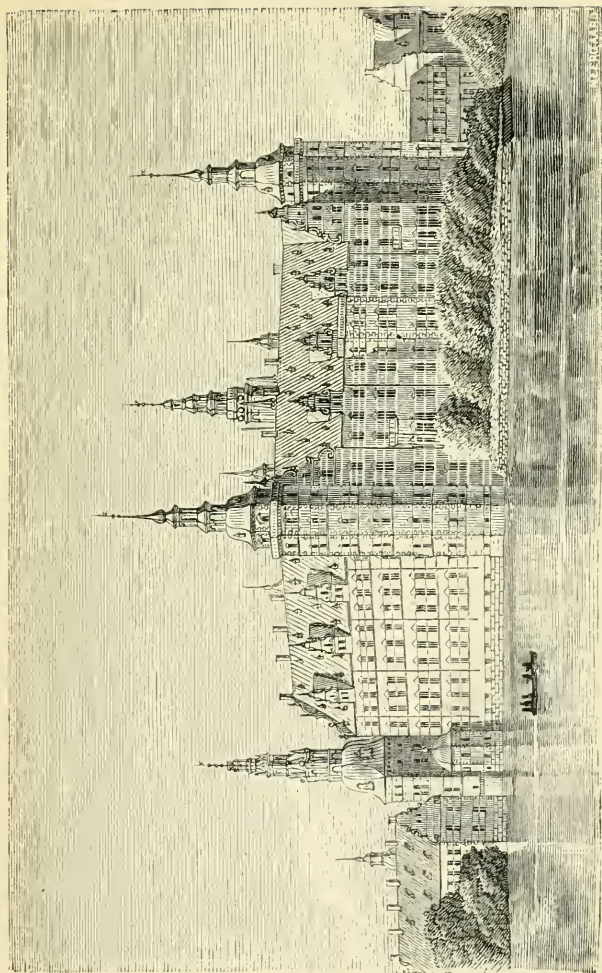
In the Dyrehave, or "Deer Park," which lies to the north of these royal villas, Copenhagen annually enjoys a midsummer revel ; a fair being held here, which reaches the climax of merriment and noise on St. John's Eve. A well, known as Kirsten Piil's, drew pilgrims to this spot in bygone times through the assumed virtues of its water, and though faith in its efficacy has long since departed, it is still the centre of attraction round which are grouped all the most popular shows of the fair. North of the beech-woods of the Dyrehave, on an open plain leading to another deer-park, from which the eye can range southward to Copenhagen, and northwards to Elsinore, stands a pretentious-looking hunting-lodge, built for the royal sportsman, Christian VI., which, with its many-windowed frontage, seems to be perpetually keeping watch, and gazing longingly at the pleasant coast-lands beyond the Sound, which are now irreparably lost to Denmark. This "Eremitage," which is forsaken by royalty, is patriotic enough to convert its kitchens into a "restauration," and to let its banqueting-hall be used by picnickers and other holiday-makers. North of this open plain lies the "Jægersborg Dyrehave," which has even greater natural beauty than Kirsten Piil's deer-park, but which, owing to its greater distance from Copenhagen, is less frequented. Here the late

king, Frederik VII., came summer after summer; and there can be little doubt that if this sovereign had found himself as much master of the royal exchequer as his predecessors had been, he would, following their example, have built himself at great cost some more or less ugly palace in the Jægersborg woods. But having confirmed to the Danes their existing constitution, and accepted a civil list, he wisely resisted any inclination he might have had to indulge in the family weakness of building, and contented himself with such accommodation as he could find in a huntsman's lodge, while his court officials had even less desirable quarters in the neighbouring public-houses and fishermen's cottages.

Last of the chain of royal woods and palaces, which extend in an almost unbroken line from the very suburbs of Copenhagen half-way to Elsinore, is Hirschholm, interesting to the English visitor from its association with George III.'s unhappy sister, Caroline Matilda, whose last summer in Denmark was spent here. For this very reason, perhaps, her son Frederik VI., who shrank from everything that had been closely associated with his mother's life, had the palace pulled down in 1810, refused to set his foot within its woods, and left her gardens to fall into decay. South of this neglected spot lies Eenrum, the property of Count Danneskjold Samsø, whose terraced gardens and

well-kept park are among the finest of their kind in Denmark. Like so many of the handsomer private residences of North-eastern Seeland, Eenrum was built by a wealthy merchant in the palmy days of Danish trade ; but its chief interest is derived from its association with the impetuous young king of Sweden, Charles XII., who is said to have come daily to a well near the house to draw water for himself, during the week he lay encamped with his army at the village of Væbeck, where he landed in 1700, with the intention of marching on Copenhagen, and carrying war to the very gates of the capital, in which his cousin, Frederik IV., was making hasty preparations to oppose the unexpected invaders.

North-west of Copenhagen, in a region of lakes and woods, rises Frederiksborg Slot, once the noblest of the many royal residences that the Danish kings of bygone times bequeathed to their successors. The original building was begun under Frederik II., grandfather of Charles I. of England, and completed, in 1608, by his son and successor, Christian IV., who gave the plan for several parts of the structure, and is said to have been his own clerk of the works ; a stone in the park being still pointed out as the one on which the royal architect sat when he paid his men their week's wages. The castle is built on three small islands in the middle of the lake of Hilleröd, that



FREDERIKSBORG CASTLE.



being the name of the neighbouring little market-town, which, whatever claims it may once have had to notice, is now known solely as the nearest station to Frederiksborg. A bridge leads direct from the town to the islet, on which stand the stables and the two towers, which alone remain from Frederik's time. On the third island stood the palace, a grandly proportioned semi-castellated building, which rose picturesquely from the waters of the lake; its massive towers, many turrets, dormered roofs, and exuberance of ornamentation, combining to make Frederiksborg rank as one of the most beautiful specimens of the florid *renaissance* of the 17th century. Unhappily, however, nothing beyond a few walls now remain of the interior as it stood in Christian's time, for, in the winter of 1859, the whole was consumed by fire while in the occupation of the reigning king, Frederik VII., when the picture gallery, with the only good portraits owned by the Royal Family, including several by Van Dyck, perished, as did all else within the walls.

The restoration of Frederiksborg, which is the dream of patriotic Danes, has already progressed so far that in 1864 the church was completed, and now again exhibits its former rococo elaborate ornamentation, and resplendent colouring. The cost of the work has been met by grants from the

Diet, and private subscriptions, foremost among which are those of Herr Jakobsen, through whose liberality the Oratory, restored to its gorgeousness of decoration, has been enriched with paintings by Bloch. The silver-gilt and ebony altar, and pulpit of Christian IV.'s chapel were saved, and now form the most precious memorials of the former splendour of Frederiksborg. Several of the kings have been crowned here; and Herr Jakobsen, in giving the sum of 200,000 kr. towards the restoration of the so-called royal wing, has, it is understood, strongly expressed the wish, that the building may be in part used for coronations, or other regal ceremonials, and in part as a national historical museum to illustrate the progressive development of art and industry in Denmark.

The gardens, with their box cut hedges, their terraces, straight walks, and broad avenues, still show traces of the stiff style of Christian's age; but in the adjoining Dyrehave, if we except an occasional incongruity in the form of a gothic bathing-house, a chalet fishing-hut, or a Greek temple summer-house, nothing has been done to detract from the natural beauty of the spot. North of Hilleröd lies Esrom, the largest and loveliest of the net-work of lakes and lakelets, which give special charm to this central part of North See-

land. Woods fringe its western shores down to the water's edge, excepting here and there, where, as at Nöddebo, a church, with a few houses clustered near it, breaks the otherwise uniform forest belt. On the eastern side the country is generally open and well cultivated, and here the only wood of any extent lies within the royal park of Fredensborg. To the north of the lake, on the margin of Gribskov, then, as now, the most considerable tract of forest-land in Denmark, stood the chief of Danish Cistercian monasteries, of which nothing remains but a broken archway and a few worn stones. Yet one apparently ineffaceable trace of the presence of this wealthy community exists in a hamlet of the district, where the inhabitants betray in their dark skins and lively manners their descent from a French colony, introduced here by the monks in the 13th century, to till the land and clear the woods. The descendants of these colonists are reputed quick-tempered and quarrelsome, but frank and hospitable, and although they make good soldiers, they prefer to keep to their hereditary work of felling trees and making charcoal, which they do precisely in the same manner as did their French progenitors.

At the south-east extremity of Esrom lake lies Fredensborg, which received its name of "Castle

of Peace" from the treaty concluded with Sweden in 1720, in commemoration of which the king, Frederik IV., built the palace, and laid out the grounds very much as they still remain. Frederik and his queen, Anna Sofie Reventlov, showed great predilection for Fredensborg, whose distance from the capital, where the marriage of the king was unpopular among the higher classes, was probably regarded by the royal couple as not the least of its advantages. After the death of Frederik, Fredensborg continued to be the favourite summer residence of the Royal Family, till the long reign of his descendant Frederik VI., who, in his morbid dislike to see, or hear of anything that had been associated with his English mother, Caroline Matilda, refused, after his accession to the throne, to visit the spot, which according to popular report was dearer to her than any other in Denmark. And where, attended by her favourite, the Minister Struensee, she was said to have indulged without stint or discretion in the prolonged hunting and riding excursions in which her feeble husband, Christian VII., could take no part, and which were counted against her as so many evidences of guilt and depravity by the Danish women, generally, to whom riding was still an unknown art. After standing empty for some years the palace was

temporarily converted into a Hampton Court, in which nobly-born widows, or orphans, found a commodious, if somewhat dull abode, until the death of Frederik removed the royal ban from Fredensborg, which since the beginning of the present king's reign has recovered its long obscured renown, and has again become the recognized summer seat of the Court. The palace is a long, plain, villa-like structure, whose most conspicuous feature is the copper-roofed cupola which rises with four turrets from the middle of the building, and surmounts the lofty central hall, which is the only apartment with any pretensions to size or beauty, the other rooms—of which there is a large number—being all of limited dimensions, and few of them retaining any trace of the painted ceilings, and rich ornamentation given to them in Frederik IV.'s time. The gardens and woods are the great charm of Fredensborg, and nothing can exceed the beauty of the linden and beech avenues, which radiate in straight, and long verdant lines from the terrace, near the palace, to the shores of the lake, whose rippling wavelets are overshadowed by the drooping boughs of the beeches which cover the sloping boundary of the park. Among the groups of statuary on the terraces are several of the most noted of Wiedewelt's works, and in the so-called "Normansdal"

may be seen sixty, or seventy weathered and dilapidated stone figures, representing Norsemen in their various national dresses, which owe their origin to an outburst of exceptionally bad taste on the part of Danish royalty, in the middle of the last century. The figures are dotted about in a damp, overshadowed hollow, and the effect of this dank Valhalla, with its crippled and dismembered assembly, is alike depressing and absurd.

To the south-east of Copenhagen lies the island of Amager, which has continued to fulfil the part of kitchen-garden to the capital since its first occupation, in 1516, by a colony of Flemings, who had been brought to Denmark by Christian II., for the express purpose of teaching his subjects how to cultivate vegetables and flowers. The descendants of the early settlers have retained many traces of their foreign origin, and the brightly coloured, clean, and quaint attire of the Amager women still forms a highly picturesque feature in the streets of Copenhagen. Between Amager and the city stretches a line of fortified islets, which, together with Christianshavn, are occupied by the arsenal, docks, and other works of the fleet. The entire group of islands, known collectively as "Nyholm," are intersected by tramways, and connected by bridges, but these facilities of locomotion are not available for the public,

since an order from the Minister of the Marine is required to secure admission to the islands.

The naval works on Nyholm are being carried on with an activity, that shows how thoroughly the government shares in the general desire of the nation to bring its fleet fully up to the requirements of the times. The resources of the country in the present century have never been such as to allow of the complete restoration of the ships and stores, taken by the English in 1807, when, after three days' destructive bombardment of the city, they captured the fleet, together with all the materials that were stored on Nyholm for the building, and repairing of ships. This blow to their naval power was long felt by the Danes to be one of the heaviest that had ever fallen upon them, while its severity was exaggerated by the fact, that England had been regarded as a protective ally up to the very moment her squadrons entered the Sound.

Happily, this was the last of the many severe assaults which Copenhagen has had to sustain from its very origin, when, as a "haven of traders," it had to be protected from the attacks of Wendish pirates, by Bishop Absalon, the warlike friend of Valdemar the Great, who, in 1160, built a stronghold for its defence, known as Axelhus. In the 13th century the traders of the port acquired civic rights, and the

place grew in wealth. But it would appear that some time had yet to pass before the citizens began to show the valour which has distinguished later inhabitants of the Haven, for when the Hansers, with a large fleet, laid siege to their port, in 1428, it required no small amount of personal bravery and persuasive eloquence on the part of the Danish queen, Philippa, daughter of Henry IV. of England, to induce them to defend their city. The lesson taught them by the valorous sister of the victor of Agincourt was not lost, however, and after gallantly repulsing their enemies, they built strong lines of defences, and showed themselves so eager to protect their rights that they drew upon themselves the favourable notice of King Christopher, the Bavarian, who, in 1443, removed the seat of government from Roskilde to the Haven, which since that time has enjoyed the distinction of being the capital of Denmark, and been known as Kjöbenhavn, Copenhagen, the "Cheapeners' Haven."

The honour of seeing their city take the rank of a capital had more than once to be paid for heavily by the Copenhageners, who thenceforth generally had to bear the lion's share in Denmark's troubles. In the civil war of 1523, when the nobles had elected Frederik I. in the place of his nephew Christian II., Copenhagen refused to open its gates to the new

king, and endured the extremes of hunger and misery before it could be induced to renounce its allegiance to the deposed sovereign. Still greater suffering fell upon the citizens a century later, in a disastrous conflict with Sweden, which brought Denmark to the brink of ruin. At this period, the Swedish king, Charles Gustavus, not content with having wrested from the Danes the provinces which they had occupied from pre-historic ages on the eastern shores of the Sound, and disregarding the treaty of peace which he had signed in 1658, threw an army into Denmark, and advanced on Copenhagen. A deputation was forthwith sent out to demand the reason for this breach of the peace, which received the answer, that "the Swedes would take the Danish provinces first, and give their reasons afterwards;" and that "as Denmark's last hour had struck, it could matter little to the burgomasters if the name of their king were Frederik, or Charles Gustavus." These insults gave new strength to the wavering resolutions of the citizens. Women and children helped to throw up stronger defences, and throughout the close investment of the city the king and queen shared in all the dangers and privations of the siege. The appearance in the Sound of a Dutch fleet, under De Witt, compelled the Swedes to withdraw,

and the city was relieved for the moment ; but in the winter of 1659, Charles Gustavus made another attempt to take the place by storm, which failed, in consequence of the citizens having been forewarned and thus enabled to repulse the assailants, who found themselves opposed, not merely by fighting-men, but by bands of fierce women, who hurled boiling tar and flaming brands against all who ventured to mount the scaling-ladders. The Swedes are said to have lost upwards of 2000 men, while only twenty of the besieged fell in that memorable assault, the failure of which, together with the recovery of Nyborg by the gallant Danish Commander, Schack, induced the Swedish king to relinquish his schemes for the immediate occupation of the Danish Islands, and to return to Sweden, where he died suddenly, at the age of thirty-eight, in the winter of 1660.

While the death of Charles Gustavus saved the kingdom from the perils which had threatened it from without, it was reserved for the burghers of Copenhagen to rescue the monarchy from its abject subjection to the nobles. The war had exhausted the treasury, and money was imperatively demanded to repair the defences of the capital, but while the burghers and clergy were ready to take their share of the national burdens, the nobles

refused to help the impoverished state, on the plea that their rank exempted them from taxation. In this emergency the burghers of Copenhagen, headed by their magistrate, Hans Nansen, and supported by the clergy led by Bishop Svane, came boldly forward in a meeting of the Diet, and demanded that the privileges of the nobles should be abrogated, and Crown lands be given in future to the highest bidders, irrespective of rank. Taken by surprise, and having no efficient leaders in the Diet, the nobles, to avert worse evils, agreed to contribute to the war-taxes ; but this no longer satisfied Nansen, who next proposed that the sovereignty should be made absolute and hereditary in the person, and descendants of the reigning king, Frederik III. This proposition excited the fiercest indignation among the nobles, who were, however, informed that the governor of the city, General Schack, with other members of the nobility, had given in his adhesion to the measure ; and, further, that the gates of Copenhagen were closed, and that if the nobles attempted to leave the hall without taking the proposed question into consideration, the alarm-bells would be rung to call together the burgher-guard, which was standing armed in its respective wards. These threats had the desired effect. The nobles gave in their sullen adhesion, and a week later, on

the 18th October, 1660, Frederik III. received the homage of the three estates, as absolute and hereditary sovereign of Denmark ; and thus exchanged a condition of galling dependence for one of unlimited authority, in the same year that ended the exile of his English cousin, Charles Stuart.

For a time Copenhagen basked in the royal favour, and increased in riches ; but the calamities of the 18th century—which included one visitation of the plague, and two disastrous fires—with the still more irreparable injuries done by English cannon, in the battle of Copenhagen, and six years later, during the bombardment of the city, under Admiral Gambier, nearly brought about the final ruin of the Danish capital. And the present appearance of Copenhagen, which is that of a new, rather than an ancient city, is at once an eloquent proof of all that has been achieved in recent times to efface older scars, and a more than sufficient reason, why the Danish capital possesses so few tangible memorials of its past history.

CHAPTER VII.

North-Eastern Seeland : Elsinore ; Cronborg ; Marienlys — Northern coast scenery—Jægerspriis, asylum for poor girls—Dragsholm : Bothwell's prison—Kallundborg : Christian II.'s prison—Samsö—Sprogö a haven of refuge—Ancient Odinic temple at Lejre—Roskilde : its ancient history—The Cathedral ; its monuments and remains—Ringsted, the burial-place of the Valdemars—Sorö Academy—The old monastery of Antvorskov—The "coast-finds" of Slagelse—Town and harbour of Kjöge—Danish lay-convents for noble ladies—Old Danish mansions—Vordingborg : its association with the Valdemars.

IN the north-east of Seeland the only town of any importance is Helsingör, better known to us under its classic name of Elsinore. Unlike most other Danish towns, its few streets are narrow and crooked, and the houses high and crowded together, without gardens or intervening courtyards, suggesting the notion that vicinity to the harbour, which is the mainstay of the place, must be an indispensable requirement for every householder. Elsinore claims a very high antiquity, and early began to pay the penalty of its advantageous position as mistress of the keys to the only passage between

the Baltic, and the northern and western oceans. Rebels and pirates, to say nothing of the Hansers, plundered and harried it so often, that beyond a few houses, and some remains of the old Black Friars' monastery and church, nothing is left of mediæval Helsingör. The Sound dues, which had been claimed by Danish kings from the earliest historic times, were levied here, to the great pecuniary advantage of the town. But when, in 1857, Denmark was compelled by the other maritime nations to accept thirty million Rigsdaler, in compensation for the abolition of this burdensome tax on trading-vessels, Elsinore lost the golden egg which it had regarded as its inalienable heritage, and sank to its present position of a small, somewhat inactive little sea-port, numbering only 9000 inhabitants. The excellence of its harbour, which is open in winter, will, however, always secure some amount of trade for this port; and of late years signs of revived prosperity have been apparent in the extension both of the harbour, and of the town, where many new buildings have sprung up, amongst which the Rådhus, or Town Hall, deserves special notice for its fine gabled front, and its general internal arrangements.

North of the town, on the extreme point of land between the Cattegate and the Sound, stands the

castle of Cronborg, which, with its lofty central spire, its lateral towers, broad bastions, massive walls, fosses, and escarpments, presents a charmingly picturesque, if not an imposing appearance, from the sea. Built by Frederik II., between 1574 and 1585, for the purpose of commanding the entrance



CRONBORG CASTLE.

to the Sound, and enforcing the payment of the Sound tolls, it was provided with such means of offence and defence as were deemed sufficient at the time, and as long as Denmark controled both shores of these northern straits of Hercules, Cronborg fulfilled its double purpose with moderate success ; but after the treaty of Roskilde, which, in

1658, united the old Danish provinces of Skåne, Bleking, and Halland with Sweden, ships could secure shelter from its guns by running close to the opposite coasts. Yet if no longer formidable, Cronborg is still worthy of all admiration as the most perfect specimen of *renaissance* castellated architecture remaining in Scandinavia, and it is possible that better cannon would again give it command over the waters of the Sound, while the interior, with casemates capable of holding 1000 men, is well adapted for purposes of defence. In the innermost court stands the fortress-church, and the wing designed for the use of the Royal Family, where the unfortunate Queen, Caroline Matilda, after the Court revolution which caused her downfall and that of the Prime Minister, Struensee, was confined till her brother George III. sent a squadron to convey her to Germany. No other member of the royal family has ever occupied these apartments, but in the vaults below there lies, according to the popular legend, the stalwart hero, Holger Danske (Charles the Great's paladin, Otgar), who, wrapt in slumber, is awaiting the hour when the Fatherland shall stand in the sorest need of his strong arm. Poor Denmark! sharp troubles must indeed be coming on her, if those through which she has passed have failed to break the hero's sleep!

North of Cronborg, overlooking the Sound and the Cattegat, stands Marienlyst, a pretty Italian villa, framed in rich woods, which, after having been first a Carmelite nunnery, and next a royal residence, is now the most charming of water-cure establishments, with annexed hotel, and bathing-houses on the beach below. The beauty of the views makes the adjoining grounds so specially attractive, that they could well dispense with the claptrap accessory of a "Hamlet's grave." The erection of this monument may, however, be accepted as a tribute of grateful admiration of the genius of the poet, who has created for the Danes an immortal Prince of Denmark, unknown to Danish history, which does no more than record the name of an "*Amlodi*," among the semi-mythic princes of Jutland.

The coast between Elsinore and the northernmost point of the island, at Gilleleje, is generally barren. But here and there a belt of dense wood breaks in upon the dreary waste, and carries a line of verdure to the shores of the Cattegat. At the village of Hellebæk, a favourite watering-place, the Tegelstrup woods reach their most northerly limits, but even here the trees attain a great size, and the little lakes which are interspersed through the densest parts of the woods make this district nearly as beautiful as its southern neighbour, Gurre—in which

popular imagination long saw the last of the Valdemars, with fire-snorting horse and fleet hounds, expiating in wild midnight rides the impious words, in which he had declared that, "if he could hunt for ever in the woods of his beloved Gurre, God might keep the kingdom of heaven!" After passing the double lighthouse at Nakkehoved, a district is entered in which the absence of trees has left a large tract of land, extending as far west as the Isefjord, to be overwhelmed by the quicksands, which are borne inland by every storm from the north and west. Beech-woods reappear on the Arresö, a lake which more than once has been connected by an open channel with the Roskilde fjord; and here, in the pretty little village of Frederiksværk, the traveller meets with the somewhat unusual sight in Denmark of a rural population engaged in factory-work, the waters of the lake being used for working the machinery of several iron-foundries and in the preparation of gunpowder, which is a monopoly of the State. Opposite to Frederiksværk, on an isthmus between the Roskilde and Ise fjords, lies the old royal domain of Jægerspris, which, after having passed through various vicissitudes, has been finally converted into an asylum for orphan girls of low rank. It owes its foundation and liberal endowment, in 1873 to King Frederik VII.'s

morganatic wife, Countess Danner, who devoted the last years of her life to the perfecting of her scheme for the support, and training, of destitute children of the class from which she had herself sprung. The girls are received in infancy, and kept till the age of sixteen, when they are sent out into service; and in order to render their condition more like that of ordinary poor children, the palace buildings are divided into special "homes," over each of which a foster-mother presides, with twenty children under her direction, who are kept apart from the other groups except in regard to school work, which all share in together, according to age and abilities.

On the western side of the Isefjord lies a wider, but more irregularly formed isthmus, which ends in a narrow tongue of land running far westward into the Cattegat. Here numerous graves and monumental stones have been found belonging to Odinic times, and not far distant stands the old stronghold of Dragsholm, now the property of Count Zytphen Adeler, but long included in the Crown domains, and used as a State prison. It was here that James Bothwell, the husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, died, in 1578, after a long imprisonment, and was buried in the neighbouring church of Fårevejle. Another still better known State prison of bygone days was the

castle of Kallundborg, near the north-western extremity of Seeland, where Christian II. passed the last ten years of his troubled life (from 1549—1559) after being released by his young cousin, Christian III., from the dungeon of Sönderborg, in which his uncle and successor, Frederik I., had for twenty years kept him immured, with no other companion than a half-witted dwarf. Not a trace of the castle is to be seen, but in the restored Frue Kirke of the little town of Kallundborg—whose foundation in 1170 was contemporaneous with the building of the castle under Valdemar the Great—we have an interesting relic of the times. This church is in the form of a Greek cross, each of the four arms of which terminates in an octagonal tower, whilst a higher and more massive tower rises from the middle part of the cross. North of Kallundborg, on a narrow neck of land, which, like the opposite island of Samsö is interesting for the number of its monolithic and other stone remains, stands a children's hospital, which is in part supported by the State.

The fruitful little island of Samsö, with its 6000 inhabitants, lying half-way between Seeland and Jutland, has also served as a prison, for which its position was well fitted; but for 200 years it has been included in the countship of the Danneskjolds,

together with other land derived from their royal progenitor, Christian V., who bestowed this old Crown fief on his mistress, Sofie Moth and her descendants. South of Kallundborg lies Korsör, whose only claim to notice in these days is that it forms the terminus of that most important of Danish railway lines, which connects the capital by the nearest route, *viâ* Fyen and Jutland, with the rest of western and southern Europe. Midway in the Great Belt, between Korsör and Nyborg in Fyen, nature has provided in the islet, Sprogö, a resting-place, and haven of refuge, in case of accidents to any of the little fleet of mail and passenger boats, which carry on a constant communication between the opposite shores. This islet is the property of the post-office authorities, who are bound to provide food and means of shelter against the not very unfrequent contingency in mid-winter of an ice-boat with its passengers being detained there for days.

The Copenhagen and Korsör line, which runs straight across the middle of Seeland, gives no favourable view of the scenery of the island, which is here flat and not well wooded; but in Roskilde and Ringsted, it passes through two of the most historically interesting spots in Denmark, both of which have been intimately associated with the re-

ligion and sovereignty of the people from the very earliest ages. In the little village of Ledre, anciently known as Lejre, near Roskilde, we have the site of a temple of Odin, which was only exceeded in sanctity by that at Upsala; and here great sacrifices were made every seven or nine years, to which flocked crowds of Vikingar, eager to secure for themselves a rich harvest of treasure in the future, by devoting to the divinity, who was believed to esteem money above all other earthly things, a portion of the wealth they had already gained. And in Roskilde, almost within sight and sound of the open piece of ground on which the worshippers of Odin offered their sacrifices at Lejre, the first Christian Danish king, Harald Blátand, son of the pagan Gorm the Old, raised in honour of the Trinity a wooden church, which thenceforth ranked as the cathedral of the diocese, and to which, in the next century, Canute the Great gave lands, in atonement for having caused his brother-in-law, Ulf Jarl, to be murdered at the altar-steps. In 1060, Ulf's son, King Svend Estridsen, caused Harold's wooden structure to be replaced by a handsome stone building, great part of the interior of which still remains, although the outer walls, which were destroyed by fire in the 13th century, have more than once been renovated,

and were only thoroughly restored in 1872. The present building, which stands out in bold relief on the generally flat landscape around it, has a picturesque appearance, with its square west towers, lofty spires, and projecting chapels in the transepts; and although the colour of the exterior is somewhat glaring, from the newness of the brickwork, the novelty of the restoration is less apparent in the interior, owing to the presence of numerous relics of early and mediæval art. Among these are several altar-pieces of the 13th century; carved *miserere* seats from the 14th; a piece of clockwork with grotesque figures striking the hours, belonging to the 15th; a colossal organ, the finest in Scandinavia, of the 16th; and a splendid pulpit, font, and royal pew, of the 17th century; together with a crowd of memorial pillars, grave-stones, and sarcophagi, which mark the resting-places of bygone kings and their kindred, and of a host of Denmark's historic worthies. In the nave the principal object of interest is the black marble sarcophagus of the renowned Queen Margaret of Scandinavia, surmounted by her recumbent effigy, and ornamented by various alabaster *bas-reliefs*. According to tradition, the noted whetstone has been buried with her, which she received from her kinsman and rival, Albert of Meck-

lenburg, with the insulting message that, she would do well "to sharpen her needles, and leave swords to men,"—a taunt which she repaid in kind, when the fortunes of war threw Albert into her power, by ordering that he should be brought into her presence clad in a woman's gown, and wearing a foolscap, three ells long, "since he had not known how to fight in men's attire." In mural niches, near the war-like queen, lie Harald Blåtand and Svend Estridsen, the oldest benefactors of the church; while not far distant their modern descendants, Frederik IV. and Christian V., with their queens, have been laid to rest in four huge stone coffins which stand above the vaults, in which are deposited the remains of a score of princelings belonging to these royal couples. A striking feature in the general appearance of the church is supplied by the mortuary chapels of Christian IV. and Frederik V., the former of which contains a few old paintings, and is enclosed within a finely-chased screen of the 17th century, although the structure is modern, and owes its frescoes, which illustrate the life of Christian IV., to Eddelien, Marstrand, and other recent artists. In the middle of the chapel stand side by side the coffins of Christian IV. and his queen, and on the former lies the sword which he bore in battle, and which, with its 2000 ounces of

silver-work, must have needed a giant's strength to wield. In Frederik V.'s chapel, built by Harsdorff, a white marble monument by Thorvaldsen's master, Wiedevelt, forms the somewhat glaring centre for a crowd of less pretentious coffins, in which lie the two queens of that monarch, and their numerous descendants, down to the last male representative of the Oldenburg line, Frederik VII., whose plain oak coffin is crowned by the golden wreath of oak-leaves, presented to him by the women of Denmark, in gratitude for the constitutional privileges he had conferred on their brethren.

Excepting its cathedral, Roskilde has little left to show that for 500 years it was the capital of Denmark, and during a still longer period the principal seat of Roman Catholic episcopacy in Seeland, for, with its 5000 inhabitants, it has the appearance of an ordinary country town. In its immediate neighbourhood archæologists will, however, find interest in the K kkenm dding, which is still traceable near the Roskilde fjord, as well as in a sepulchral chamber of considerable size at Oem, in which several skeletons, with urns and other objects, have been found. In Ringsted, Danish historians pretend to find a place older, if not more sacred, than Roskilde, although it has now dwindled to the dimen-

sions of a village, having saved nothing from the disastrous fire of 1806, but St. Bendt's Church, and even that has required a thorough reparation, which is not yet completed. The interior is still interesting, from its being the spot in which lie buried Denmark's bravest and best loved kings, the Valdemars, some of whom were also crowned here, but when, in 1855, King Frederik VII. caused their graves to be opened, the greater number were found to have been already disturbed. Exceptional favour had, however, been shown towards those of Valdemar the Great, and of Berengaria of Portugal, the second wife of his son, Valdemar Sejr, for while the latter appeared to be intact, the body of the king was found still wrapped in the monk's frock, in which he is known to have been buried, while his head rested on a leaden plate, inscribed with the words "the mighty conquerer of the Wends, and the noble liberator of his oppressed Fatherland."

The fact that the grave of Dagmar, Valdemar Sejr's first queen, and the darling of the people, should have been rifled, while that of her hated successor was spared, seems difficult to account for, unless it may be due to a superstitious dread of approaching the latter, in regard to which it was long popularly believed, that sounds of demoniacal

laughter issued at the hour of midnight from the spot where Berengaria's head rested.

At Sorö, embosomed in trees and almost surrounded by a pretty little lake, stands the noted academy which the great dramatist, Ludvig Holberg, endowed with his wealth. It was founded by Frederik II., in 1586, and owed its origin to the early Cistercian monastery that had occupied the spot from the twelfth century, and where Bishop Absalon, the friend of Valdemar the Great, dedicated a church to Our Lady, as a pious offering from himself and his kindred, the Hvides, who belonged to south Seeland, and ranked as the first among Danish noble families. After having for more than two centuries been open only to boys of noble or equestrian rank, Sorö was converted, in 1849, into a general classical academy. The church, which is the largest of its kind in Denmark, still preserves many interesting relics of its older splendour, in spite of repeated more or less badly executed restorations. Behind the altar stands the grave of Bishop Absalon, which when opened in recent times was found to contain a skeleton of more than average length, beside which lay a crozier, while the hands enclosed a silver cup, containing a gold ring of curious workmanship; and below the floor of the chancel, and in the transepts, lie buried the parents, brothers,

and other relatives of the warrior-churchman, while another part of the church contains the remains of Sorö's latest benefactor, the wit and dramatist, Ludvig Holberg.

Near Sorö another memento of the wealth and piety of the Hvides may be seen, in Bjernede, the only round church remaining in Seeland, which was founded by an uncle of Absalon "to the honour of God, Our Lady, and St. Lawrence," as the inscription records, which is still legible above the entrance-door. And notwithstanding the neglect into which the church was allowed to fall after the Reformation, enough of the old armoury and chancel still remains to show the original design of the building, which was to provide a retreat in time of danger, and a safe depository for arms.

Half-way between Sorö and Korsör stands Slagelse, one of the earliest towns of the island, whose chief interest in these days is derived from the ruins of the old monastery of Antvorskov, founded by Valdemar the Great, and long associated with the Hvide family. To the archæologist, however, the neighbourhood offers special attractions in the number of its tumuli, and sepulchral- and bauta-stones ; while on the nearest points of the shore, both north and south of Korsör,

may be seen the remains of several *kystfund*, the so-called "coast-finds," consisting of large quantities of flints, and flint implements, which may be regarded as the refuse of some pre-historic factory.

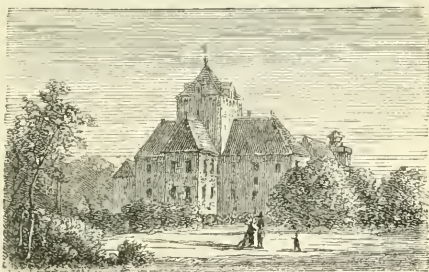
Skjelskør and Næstved, on the south coast, are interesting chiefly as centres from which certain points that ought not to be overlooked may be most readily reached; thus, near the former lie Espe and Borreby, two of the oldest baronial mansions of south Seeland, each with a family legend, which C. H. Andersen has brought into his "*Eventyr og Historier*;" while, close to the latter, surrounded by woods, and skirted by Seeland's most important river, the Suså, stand the extensive buildings, known as Herlufsholm, which, after having been first a monastery, were, in 1590, transferred by Frederik II. to Admiral Herluf Trolle for the purpose of being converted into a public school, while the king took in exchange the lands of Hillerødsholm, on which he subsequently built the castle of Frederiksborg.

In Kjøge, on the open bay of the same name, south Seeland would seem to have a port well adapted for commerce, but the appearance of the place does not indicate activity of any kind. It has a few interesting old houses near the market-

place, which possesses a bronze statue, after Bissen's model of Frederik VII. in the act of presenting a draft of the constitution of 1849 to his people. The design is no doubt admirable, but after seeing in every town, and at innumerable points in the open country, memorial towers, pillars, and pedestals, surmounted by full or half-length figures, busts, and helmeted heads of Frederik VII., one is inclined to wish that the Danes had found it possible to express their gratitude to his majesty with less monotonous unanimity. Near Kjöge, with woods and water closing it in on every side, stands Vallö Castle, once the property of the Thotts and Rosenkrandses, and now a richly endowed lay convent for unmarried ladies of the higher orders of nobility. It became a royal possession under Frederik IV., who bestowed it on his queen, Anna Sofie Reventlov ; but on his death, his son and successor, Christian VI., took it from that lady and passed it on to his own queen, who, in 1738, endowed it with lands, and converted it to its present purpose. With the Hereditary Princess for its president, and Count Moltke as its director, Vallö ranks as the most exclusive, as well as the wealthiest institution of its kind. Another almost equally rich retreat for noble ladies was endowed by a sister of Frederik IV., at Vemmetofte, south

of the town of Storehedinge, where the house, with its central tower, gabled fronts, moats, bridge, and lofty entrance-gates, presents a good example of the style of domestic architecture for which the Danish nobility of the 16th and 17th centuries showed so great a preference. Vemmetofte is possessed of large revenues, but instead of these being divided between some forty or fifty members, as at Vallö, they are shared by nearly two hundred ladies, of whom the greater number are non-residents, who receive various annual stipends.

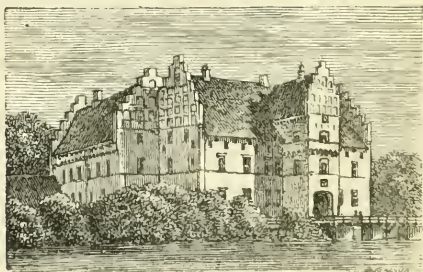
North of Storehedinge, with woods running down towards the easternmost extremity of south Seeland, stand the old domains of Gjorslev, whose castellated



GJORSLEV.

manor-house, with walls four feet deep, and vaulted cellars twenty-four feet in height, retains much of its

14th century character, and is built somewhat in the form of a Maltese cross, with a low massive tower in the middle, surmounting a noble entrance-hall supported by a central group of columns. To this old structure the last proprietor added a new wing, with an observatory and library, noted for the excellence of their instruments, maps, and scientific books. The chalk cliffs on the coast,



GISSFELD.

and the extensive lime quarries at Faxe, belonging to Count Moltke Bregentved, whose castle is one of the show-places of the neighbourhood, give to the scenery of the Storehedinge promontory a peculiar character, which is strongly marked on the Gjorslev property, where beechwoods extend to the edge of precipitous rocks, the descent from which to the shore has to

be made by means of ladders and cut steps. Near Gjorslev, Gisselfeld, the ancient home of Christian II.'s court-marshal, Peder Oxe, lies like a true Danish noble residence framed in beech-woods, and almost surrounded by the waters of a lake. The mansion-house, which was completed in 1575, after the labour of thirty years, and consists of wings joined together by obliquely projecting gabled ends, has various defences in the form of machicoulis, drawbridge, portcullis, high vaulted cellars, roofs pierced for shot, and a massive projecting entrance tower, which betray the condition of society in Denmark in the middle of the 16th century ; but a hundred years after its erection, its warlike preparations for attack and defence had ceased to be more than mere mementoes of a past age, and in 1690 it was converted into a lay convent for ladies. It differs, however, from Vallö and Vemmetofte, in not being a residence for its members, who receive an annual income from the rents of the estate, whilst the house is occupied by its hereditary directors, the Counts Danneskjöld-Samsö. And as its honorary lady-superior and its thirty sisters must be daughters of men belonging to one or other of the two highest grades of nobility, Gisselfeld, like its fellow-conventual foundations, does its part in maintaining distinctions of rank, which have

otherwise nearly ceased to carry any weight in Denmark.

In Vordingborg, on the most southern part of Seeland, and the nearest point to the island of Falster, there is nothing to interest the stranger but the few ruins remaining of the castle built by Valdemar the Great, where both he and his son, surnamed "Sejr," died, and which in later times was made memorable by its association with their namesake, Valdemar Atterdag. The latter king has left a lasting memorial of the grim humour for which he was noted, in the "Goose Tower," still standing on the castle hill, which owed its name to the gilt goose, that the king caused to be set up on its highest pinnacle in derision of the seventy-seven deputies, sent by the Hanseatic League to settle a treaty with him, and whom he had shut up in his tower at Vordingborg, saying, that "seventy-seven fat Lybeck geese had need of a roomy roosting-place;" but Valdemar's golden goose proved a costly jest, for five years later, in 1368, the victorious traders forced him to leave his kingdom, and submit to hard terms before they would permit him to return. The "Gâsetårn" is all that remains of the castle built by Valdemar the Great, whose death there, in 1182, had been accelerated by his exertions in trying, in the depth of winter, to

quell an insurrection that had broken out in Skâne, where the peasants had rebelled against Bishop Absalon's harshness in forcing them to carry wood and stones over long distances, for the building of a monastery and a bishop's house at Lund. The king had counselled his friend to use conciliatory measures, but Absalon refusing to yield where the interests of the Church were concerned, met the insurgents with armed resistance, on which the revolt became general, and he was driven back to his ship. On the arrival of the king with reinforcements, the people declared their willingness to submit to their sovereign, but vehemently declared, that they "would have no more bishops or unmarried priests, nor would they pay compulsory tithes." This conflict between the Church and people ended in the complete defeat of the insurgents in a sanguinary battle fought near Landskrona, from which Valdemar returned a victor, but only to die on the second day of his arrival at Vordingborg, leaving to Absalon the sole guardianship of his children—a charge which the bishop fulfilled with a zeal and vigour that helped to secure to Denmark the temporary power and glory which she enjoyed under Valdemar's sons.

CHAPTER VIII.

The island of Lolland : its character and appearance—Saxkjöbing and Maribo—Archæological remains—Principal mansions—Island of Falster : its towns, and their royal residents—Möen, the highlands of Denmark : its picturesque scenery ; its one town and the associations connected with it—The island of Bornholm : its general character ; the great richness of its runic and prehistoric remains ; its Round churches with their weapon-houses—The font of Åkirkeby—The history of the island ; its freedom and industry.

VORDINBORG is the best port from which to cross to the triple islands of Lolland, Falster, and Möen, which complete the Seeland group, and are clustered so closely round the southern extremity of the main island as almost to appear to form a part of it. Lolland, or Låland (Lowland), the largest of the three, is well named, for save a hill of 100 or 150 feet, in height, the country is everywhere flat, but it is well wooded in some parts, and has a generally prosperous appearance, which is enhanced by the double rows of Canada poplars, with which the roads, both here and in Falster, are fringed, and

which give the country the aspect of being be-arched, and festooned for some festive occasion.

The principal town, Saxkjöbing, which has now only 1400 inhabitants, claims a high antiquity, and, since 1333, has possessed burgher and civic rights of which many a populous city might be proud. The most interesting of the Lolland towns, however, is Maribo, in the middle of the island, which is built on a strip of land dividing two small lakes, and stretching down towards the banks of another and smaller piece of water, where this picturesque little place, which is framed in dense foliage, looks thoroughly in keeping with the ruins near it. It owed its origin to the far-renowned monastery and nunnery founded here, in 1417, by Erik the Pomeranian, in consequence of the sudden appearance of a brilliant light, which was taken as a sign that Our Lady desired to have a church on the spot. After the Reformation the religious buildings were converted into a lay convent for ladies, but a century later the evil repute of its high-born inmates led to its disestablishment. The conventual church, which has been restored with much success by Hansen, is full of interesting memorials, such as early mediæval pictures of the Virgin, and some beautiful pieces of carving, including a reliquary crucifix,

within which a large number of curious relics were discovered in recent times.

The neighbourhood of Maribo is also especially rich in palæontological and archæological remains, and, besides large finds of flint implements, numerous tumuli and mounds have been discovered within the last few years, including thirty graves belonging to the bronze age, which are grouped together in a wood on the banks of the Hejreide lake; while on the neighbouring islet, Borgö, Professor Warså, in 1858, brought to light a considerable quantity of flint knives and axes. And considering the success of these, and other explorations, it is very desirable that the whole of the island should be more systematically explored.

The land in Lolland is divided amongst a comparatively small number of proprietors, including one or two of the wealthiest of the Danish nobles, whose residences are especially large and handsome. In the south, Ålholm Castle, once a royal stronghold—where Queen Margaret is said to have occupied a portion of the old building, that still remains—eclipses, with its fine park and noble gardens, the ancient little town of Nysted; while in the north, the Pederstrup domains, belonging to a branch of the Reventlov family, occupy the whole of the district lying to the north of the old and busy sea-

port of Nakskov. This little town, which has only in recent times had respite from the frequent harryings and spoilings, which it underwent at the hands of Lybeckers, and Swedes, in their numerous invasions, is rising rapidly in prosperity, and, with its 4000 inhabitants, it already ranks as the chief trading port of the island.

The island of Falster, which is connected with Lolland by means of suspension and railway bridges, thrown across the Guldborgsund, is somewhat less uniformly flat than the larger island. Both were early exposed to attacks from the Wends, and both have undoubtedly been occupied by the Vikingar, since rich finds of coins and ornaments, having an oriental character, have more than once shown the early connexion of its former occupants with Byzantium. The most accessible haven on the island is on the north-eastern coast, at Stubbekjöbing, but its most picturesque town is Nykjöbing, an ancient fortified burgh, which, among various other crowned heads, can claim Peter the Great as one of its residents, the Czar having made a prolonged stay here on his journey to Copenhagen in 1716. In 1588, when the Council of Regency desired to get rid of the Queen-Regent, Sophia, mother of Christian IV., and of Anne the wife of the Scottish James VI., the castle at Nykjöbing was prepared for

her residence, whither she was compelled, much against her will, to betake herself. And in the recently restored church of the Grey-Friars are still preserved, amongst other memorials of this learned and royal lady, her own picture, and those of thirty-two of her ancestors—the so-called Mecklenburg genealogical tree—which she had caused to be hung up on a wall of the north aisle of the old church.

The little island of Möen, whose area scarcely exceeds eighty square miles, ranks as the highlands of Denmark, and with its chalk cliffs, whose steep sides are rent and fissured, its numerous little lakes, narrow valleys, and generally luxuriant vegetation, it is unquestionably one of the most picturesque spots in Denmark. In Catholic mediæval times, the abundant shoals of herrings, which were taken in the Grönsund, gave some importance to the island, and as a matter of course it was burnt, and pillaged in every war, and almost depopulated after the occupation of the Swedes, at the end of the 17th century. An attempt was then made to re-colonize the island, by giving foreign sailors allotments of land, but the scheme proved worse than profitless, and it is only in the present century that some prosperity has been restored to it, since the land has been better cultivated under the free Bönder, and the

larger proprietors. The highest points of land are on the eastern coast, where, near Klintholm, the Abborebjærg rises to the height of 450 feet, quite a mountainous elevation for a Danish hill! South of this, Kongsbjærg, Risk, and Rud reach nearly the same height, and afford splendid views of the varied chalk formations and wooded heights of the island, and across the Ulsund of the coasts of Seeland, and the islets clustered round its southern extremity.

The only town on the island is Stege, which is said to owe its origin to a castle founded there by Valdemar the Great, and near it lies Marienborg, now the property of Herr Tutein, which possesses historic interest as the birth-place of the brave knight, Jakob Nielsen, who was one of the 100 hostages required by Charles Gustavus, after the peace of Roskilde in 1658, and who, with a few confederates, overpowered the crew of the Swedish ship of war in which they were being taken to Sweden, and brought it safely into Copenhagen—a gallant feat, for which Frederik III. created him Count Dannefer. The park and gardens of Marienborg merit notice for the beauty and variety of their trees; and the gratitude of archæologists is due to its owner for the care he has taken to preserve the various runic stones, and other interesting

remains, which are to be found near Rödödinge and Spröve, on the western side of the island.

East of Möen, and at a distance of 100 miles from the Danish capital, lies Bornholm, an island that well deserves notice, and possesses a melancholy interest to Denmark, in being the only one of its old Baltic provinces still remaining to it. Considered in reference to its geographical position, geological and other physical characters, and the appearance of its inhabitants, it belongs essentially to the Scandinavian peninsula, from which it is only about twenty-five miles distant. The island, which, with a population of 32,000, has an area of about 220 English square miles, exhibits considerable variety of scenery—granite boulders, sandstone rocks, schists, and slates, combining to produce mineralogical and vegetable features, differing wholly from the leading characteristics of the other Danish islands. The coast-line is generally rocky, and in many parts the cliffs assume bold and picturesque forms, and are cut by deep fissures, from which have sprung forth sturdy oaks, slender birches, and numerous mountain-ash trees, fringed with a profusion of wild roses for which the island is especially remarkable, while its surface, generally, is broken by numerous hills, none of which rise, however, upwards of 500 feet in height.

The island, which has frequent steam communication with Copenhagen, is especially worthy of attention from archæologists, who will find there a greater abundance, and a richer variety of pre-historic, and early historical remains than in any other spot of equal size in Scandinavia. These memorials of a past age include mounds, tumuli, sepulchral chambers and passages, cairns, cromlechs, rocking-stones, hearths, runic, and bauta-stones, and every variety of those ancient places, and forms of burial, for which the English language can give no exact rendering of the names by which they are distinguished in Danish; while, in point of fact, the island may be characterized as a natural museum of northern antiquities. The neighbourhood of the chief town, Rønne, has yielded the largest number of objects belonging to the bronze age, but here also are several cairns and mounds of the earlier iron age. At a spot near Svaneke, in a hollow, now known as Louise-lund, stands the most perfect group of bauta-stones (menhirs), of which some are more than eight feet high; but owing to the removal of several members of the circles, it is no longer possible to determine how far they resembled our own Stonehenge, or the megalithic remains at Carnac. Among the runic stones, of which about twenty-five have been deci-

phered, which all belong to the earliest period of Christianity on the island, some are of great beauty, but the most remarkable of these stone remains are those which exhibit cup-like depressions, or the outlines of wheels, and in the case of one at Lille Myregård, a rude representation of a human figure. These gravings, which are known as "Hellerisinger," and are found on separate stones and on cliffs, are not uncommon in Sweden, but it is only in recent times that their frequent occurrence in Bornholm has attracted the notice of scientific inquirers.

Among the several old churches, which belong to the 12th and 13th centuries, there are four so-called "new," or Round churches, which have been constructed with a view to defence. These buildings, which, with only one exception, lie on high ground within a mile of the coast, consist of a strong round tower, attached to the west end of the nave, through which alone it could be reached ; while within the loop-holed tower a winding stair led into a loft above the nave, known as the "Våbenhus," or arsenal, which was only accessible from the second, or third storey. The oval-shaped choir ends in a rounded apse, and the belfry is a detached building behind the tower, and within, or close to all these churches, are runic stones belonging to

early Christian times. At Åkirkeby, the only one of the six towns of the island that lies in the interior, the church is remarkable for having a double *square* tower, although in other respects it resembles the defensive Round churches; its weapon-house, moreover, contains two of the best preserved runic stones, and in its carved grey-stone font, resting on a base of alternate lion and ram's heads, it has preserved one of the most interesting relics of early northern art. The exterior of this unique font, which is now in the Northern Antiquities Museum at Copenhagen, is ornamented with a series of well-cut figures, representing the life of Christ in twelve compartments, surmounted by rounded arches, which bear an inscription explaining in Northern runes the meaning of the carvings.

Before the introduction of Christianity, in the 11th century, Bornholm had long been renowned in the north for the valour and riches of its vikings, whose intercourse with far distant peoples is still being revealed to us by occasional finds of gold and silver ornaments, beads, and other objects of ancient foreign origin, together with Cufic and Roman coins, which have lain buried for ages in some mound or tumulus. After the downfall of the Odinic faith, the island was held in fief, and ruled by the bishops of Lund for 500 years, with

only occasional intermissions, when the Danish kings secured a temporary hold over these somewhat too independent vassals. This clerical rule was not specially beneficial to the island, but it was far better than that of the Lybeck traders, who, in 1525, received it in pawn and pledge for fifty years from Frederik I., who having no money wherewith to pay them for the services they had rendered him, in his struggle to secure the throne of his nephew Christian II., gave the island into their hands. In the 17th century Bornholm was occupied by the Swedes, who proved nearly as hard taskmasters as the Lybeckers; but this foreign occupation was quickly brought to an end through the daring of the islanders, who, headed by a soldier, named Jens Kofod, surprised the garrison in the fortress of Hammerfest, shot their commandant, and carried the Swedish soldiers prisoners to Copenhagen, which, by the peace concluded a few months earlier (1658), was for the moment relieved of its besiegers. King Frederik rewarded the islanders by granting them numerous privileges, one of which, in its present modified form, exempts Bornholmers from service in the army for more than two years, after which term—unless in times of war or invasion—their military duties are limited to occasional militia service on their own island.

In the present day Bornholm is left to settle its own affairs very much as it likes, and, as an integral part of the monarchy, it shares fully in all the religious, educational, and civic advantages enjoyed by the sister islands. These benefits it richly repays by contributing, to the general industry and commerce of the kingdom, many important materials which Denmark would otherwise have to seek in other lands. And no place is more indebted to Bornholm, and its industrious population, than Copenhagen, which owes to the island the stones that pave its streets and the marbles with which it adorns them, the clay with which it carries on its great speciality of porcelain manufactures, and last, but not least, an important part of the daily supplies of its markets.

CHAPTER IX.

The island of Fyen : its character—Odense: its history, and association with national religious movements ; its churches, relics of art, guilds, and memorials—Nyborg : Christian II.—Kjerteminde—Svendborg : its history and position—The Fyen Alps—Old baronial mansions—Northern antiquities at Broholm—Fåborg —Tycho Brahe's uncle — Round church — Arreskov Lake—Lyö : the capture of Valdemar Sejr and his son—Assens : its position and past troubles—Middelfart : its porpoise-fishery—Scenery on coast—Islands—Langeland : Trane-kjær Castle—Isle of Tåsinge : its picturesque position.

THE island of Fyen, whose area is about 1200 square miles, with a population of 256,000, lies midway between Seeland and Jutland, the former of which it resembles in its general geological character. It is, however, less wooded, and has only one or two lakes, no streams, and few fjords or bays of any importance to navigation. Owing to its freedom from quicksand storms, its ports are, however, generally better than those in Seeland, and at the present day an active trade is springing up at many points of the island, through the export of

dairy produce, which under better management is rapidly becoming a steady source of wealth.

The chief town, Odense, with its 20,000 inhabitants, which long stood next to Copenhagen in regard to population, may, in respect to antiquity, take precedence of the capital. Its origin is lost in obscurity, but from prehistoric ages it was venerated, under the name of "Odins-Ey" (Odin's Island), as a spot sacred to the god of the northmen who was worshipped here in Denmark, though his chief seat lay at Upsala in Sweden, where his power lasted longest. But here he had a temple, scarcely less esteemed than that of Lejre in Seeland, which long brought wealth and renown to the island.

When Christianity was first preached in the islands, no place was more prompt than Odense to take up the new faith, and replace the broken altars of Odin by churches, among which St. Knud's, which held the shrine of the patron saint of Denmark, was for centuries regarded as the most sacred spot on Danish ground. And in later ages, Odense again distinguished itself by taking the lead in the new progressive religious movement, for it was here that, in 1527, the important synod was held in which Danish reformers secured for themselves, and their co-religionists, equal rights with Roman Catholics, and inflicted a fatal blow on

the supremacy of the old Church by carrying a resolution, which transferred the nomination of ecclesiastical officers to the king independently of papal approval. It was, moreover, chiefly through the learning and zeal of the reformer, Hans Tausen, a native of Odense, that these resolutions acquired legal authority at the great Diet held in Copenhagen, in 1530, for here he met the protest of the bishops with such eloquence, that he induced the members to sanction the promulgation of a new form of faith, in which the Bible was acknowledged as the sole authority for doctrine, and the Odense Resolutions were accepted as binding in all matters concerning church government.

St. Knud's church, to which Odense owed its mediæval prosperity, was built in 1101, to receive the remains of the martyred king, Knud IV., who, with his brother, Benedict, and seventeen faithful followers, had been slain by a party of rebels while kneeling before the altar of St. Alban's. After the Reformation, it gradually fell into decay, and the building which now bears that name is a modern restoration by Herholdt (1865-75), and one of the most successful attempts as yet made in Denmark to reproduce early pointed Gothic. Vor Frue Kirke was founded before St. Knud's, and although repeatedly altered, it still retains the form it presented in the

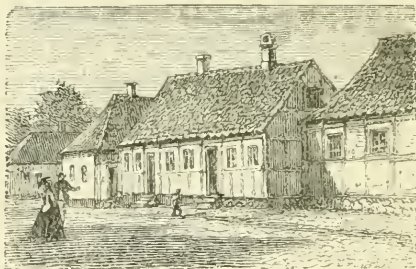
15th century, and in the altar-piece and screen, possesses beautiful specimens of early *renaissance* gilt-carved work.

Besides these, and similar objects in the churches, a few artistic relics of the mediæval prosperity of Odense have of late years been rescued, and placed in the museum of the old castle.

The riches of the old Odense guilds are shown in the number of charitable and educational institutions possessed by the town, whose citizens were noted for their wealth even after the Reformation had put down its shrines, and depressed its trade. And, in proof of their prosperous condition, we are told that when, in 1570, Frederik II. visited the place, and was entertained by the burgomaster, Bager, the latter, who was not even the wealthiest of his class, caused cedar-wood, cinnamon, and other spices to be used as fuel in the banqueting-hall, while, at a subsequent visit from the king, he threw into the fire all the acknowledgments which he held for moneys advanced to his royal guest.

The town contains only two memorials of any interest connected with recent times, and these differ as widely in sentiment, as in form; the one being a colossal statue of Frederik VII., erected in 1868, to commemorate his grant of a constitution to his people in 1849, and the other a

small marble tablet, indicating the humble dwelling in which H. C. Andersen first saw the light, on April 2, 1805.



THE HOME OF H. C. ANDERSEN IN HIS YOUTH.

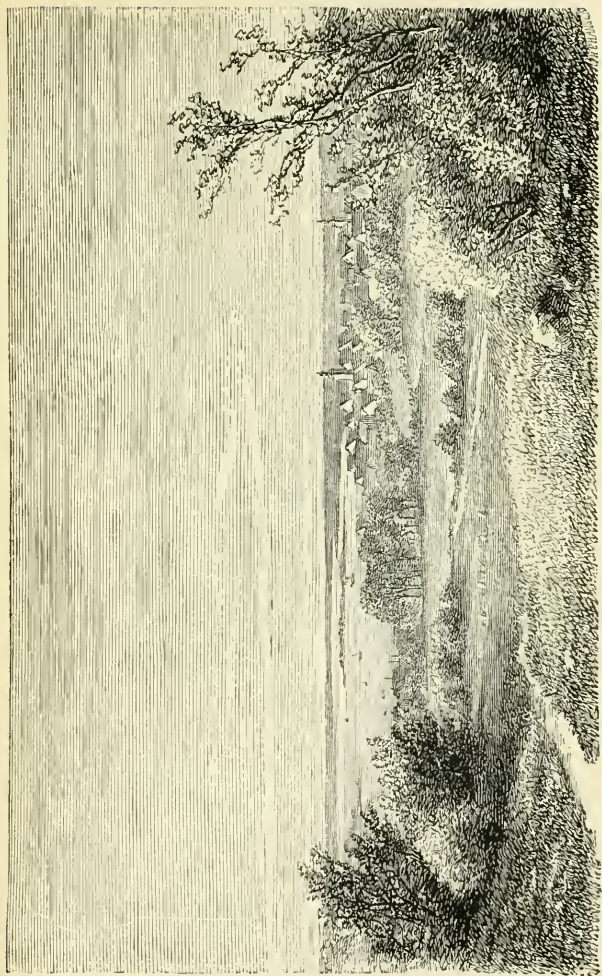
Finally, it must be recorded to the honour of Odense, that here, within the Benedictine monastery, the earliest Danish book was written in 1109, the subject being the appropriately local History of St. Knud ; while here, too, in 1482, appeared the first book printed in Scandinavia. The printer, Johan Snell, was not, however, a Dane, but a German, who had found protection under the shadow of St. Knud's, and who presented his fellow-townsmen with the first-fruits of his novel industry in the form of a Latin history of the siege of Rhodes.

The most interesting, and the only considerable town on the east coast of the island, is Nyborg—the

port through which travellers pass to and from Seeland—whose castle, which was nearly demolished under Frederik IV., was frequently the seat of the Diet in the middle ages, and more than once served as a place of durance for royal and other prisoners in the early wars with Slesvig. Only one wing of the old building remains, and here, according to tradition, Christian II. was born, and here he met with an adventure in his infancy, which might easily have cut short his life, and thus saved him and his kingdom from the bitter fruits that followed his short and wild exercise of power. The popular tale, which throws a strange light on the domestic habits of the Danish Royal Family in the 15th century, relates that in the course of 1485, when King Hans and his queen Christina were making a regal progress through their newly acquired kingdom, and while their infant son, Christian, was left in the castle at Nyborg, under the care of a few attendants, the child was one day lifted from his cradle by a pet monkey, and carried to a projecting ledge of the tower, where the animal amused itself by tossing him high in the air ; and that when at length the heedless servants perceived his perilous position, hours passed before the little prince could be extricated from the clutches of his self-elected nurse.

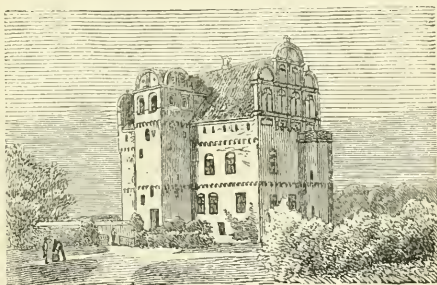
North of Nyborg there is no town of any interest, for Kjerteminde, which was of some importance before the opening, in 1680, of the deep water-way up to the capital, has sunk into insignificance; but south of Nyborg we find in Svendborg (6500 inhabitants) one of the most beautifully situated towns in the Danish islands. No other place presents a more picturesque combination of the best characteristics of the local scenery, for here luxuriant beech-woods, and well-cultivated lands slope down to the very edge of the narrow straits, across whose deep green waters appears the varied panorama of the numerous richly wooded islands that constitute the Archipelago of Southern Fyen. The history of Svendborg is said to go back to the time of Svend Tveskæg, from whom the stronghold is assumed to have taken its name, and who is believed to have passed his early youth here under the guardianship of the noted pagan vikingar, Palnatok, one of the most redoubted pirates of the 10th century.

The Svendborg of to-day, in its crooked, hilly streets, preserves a characteristic of older Danish towns not often met with; while its numerous churches, and the remains of the strongly entrenched fort of Örkil, which owes its origin to Valdemar Sejr, afford evidence of its former size



VIEW OF SVENDBORG.

and importance. The country north of Svendborg, more especially near Kvændrup, has considerable beauty, and its relatively high ranges of hills has gained for it the appellation of the "Fyen Alps." East of this district lie the estates of Örbeklunde and Glorup, the former noteworthy for its turreted 16th century manor-house, and the latter, which is the property of Count Moltke-Bregentved, for its well-wooded park, and for gardens, whose conserva-



°
HESSELAGERGÅRD.

tories and hot-houses are unrivalled in these northern regions. In the old baronial residence of Hesselager, near Glorup, a specimen of Danish domestic architecture of the 16th century has been preserved almost unchanged, and near it, at Broholm, the archæologist will find matter of interest in the Museum of Northern Antiquities, collected by the

present proprietor, Herr Sehested, who, in an exploration extending five miles round the estate, has brought together upwards of 10,000 objects belonging to the stone, bronze, and iron age; while within the same area have been found some of the most valuable gold ornaments as yet obtained in Denmark.

In the south-west of the island lies Fåborg, a sorely tried little port, which of late years has been in some degree recovering from the many troubles of its bygone days, when the civil war of 1533, known as "the Counts' Feud," nearly brought it to irretrievable ruin, and a fire in 1728 as nearly reduced it to ashes. Now it has 3800 inhabitants, and seems to be beginning to turn its excellent haven to good account. The parish church, although in a great measure indebted to recent restoration for the simplicity and harmony of the interior, has preserved some interesting memorials of its condition before the Reformation, in its carved and richly gilt early *renaissance* altar, its screen, and finely finished *miscrere* seats. Near Fåborg, on the promontory of Hornland, lies Hvedholm, a quadrangular and turreted house of the 16th century, which a hundred years later was owned by the rich Jörgen Brahe, known as "the little king in Fyen," of whom it is related that he

caused his uncle, Tycho Brahe's, observatory at Hven to be pulled down, and the materials used in the building of the Hvedholm barns and cattle-sheds ! And at Horne we find an interesting specimen of the old Danish round churches, which were built with a view of serving as places of defence in times of war.

North of Fåborg lies Arreskov lake, the largest inland piece of water in Fyen ; while near it, on the banks of a little lake within the barony of Brahetrolleborg, stood the Cistercian monastery of *Insula-Dei*, part of which may still be traced in a wing of the manor-house. It is, however, especially in the little island, Lyö, which can be reached by the ferry from Fåborg, that the most interesting historical associations centre, for it was here that, in 1223, Valdemar Sejr, and his eldest son, were captured by their treacherous vassal, Count Henry of Schwerin, while they, and their attendants, lay buried in sleep after a long day's chase. Gagged and bound, the captives were carried across the sea to Germany, and kept in close confinement for three years, during which the German vassals of Denmark, one by one, freed themselves from their allegiance, and the kingdom was being exhausted in the struggle to rescue its princes, whose final release was only effected at the cost of nearly all

the conquests that had given renown and strength to the Valdemars.

The position of Assens—a place of the same size and standing as Fåborg,—on the west coast, immediately opposite to Slesvig, tells its own tale. Its fairly good harbour, with twelve feet of water, gave it importance for hostile purposes whenever war broke out in the northern lands, and accordingly the Counts' Feud did not fail to leave its mark on the place in the demolition of its ancient walls, and of everything belonging to earlier times except one church, Vor Frue Kirke, which in regard to size stands next to St. Knud's at Odense. With a high tower, fine peal of bells, some good pointed windows, and its well-proportioned nave, this church has various features of interest; but one could wish that better counsels had prevailed when the authorities made use of its ancient sepulchral stones to fence in the grave-yard!

The only town in Fyen that remains to be noticed is Middelfart, a small borough of 2500 inhabitants, which is important as the last stepping-stone between the Danish Isles and the Peninsula, and attractive from its position commanding charming views of the wooded shores of Fyen and Jutland, which are separated only by a deep channel of the Little Belt, not more than a few



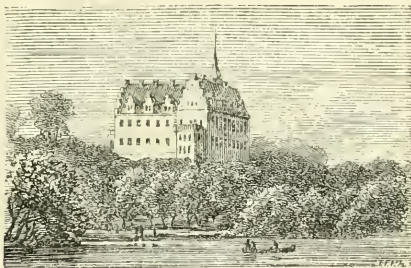
VIEW OF MIDDELFART.

hundred feet across. To say that it once held a royal fort, that it again and again was the rendezvous for hostile armaments, and that it bore the brunt of every war—the last time in 1848, when the open town was bombarded by the Prussians—is only to repeat what has too often to be recorded of other Danish towns. Middelfart has had the singular distinction of being the centre of the porpoise fisheries, established by Christian IV. in 1630, and at the present day it is making laudable efforts to become a popular bathing-place, for which it is well adapted by its position near long ranges of sheltered beach, and by its accessibility from every part of the kingdom.

Fyen owes much of the beauty of its views to the numerous islands which fringe its southern and western shores, some of which are mere specks of land, while others, as Langeland, are of some extent, the latter being thirty-five miles long by about six miles broad. The next in size to this exceptionally large member of the group, are Tassing and Ærö, its near neighbours, which are grouped closely round the southern extremity of the main island, from which they have probably been separated, in some not very remote period, by the force of the currents from the Great, and Little Belt.

Langeland's one market-town, Rudkjöbing, (population 3000), deduces its name and origin from the giant Rud, while it can boast of having possessed a veritable giant in science, in H. C. Oersted, the discoverer of electro-magnetism, who was born here. There are several fine woods in the neighbourhood of this ancient town, which as a matter of course was once fortified, and frequently harried and burnt in the wars with Sweden and Slesvig. North of Rudkjöbing, and in the Fårevejle woods, are the ruins of ancient viking-forts, which indicate that the island had been used as a landing-station by the piratical northmen of heathen times. More modern historical associations are connected with Tranekjær Castle, the residence of Count Ahlefeldt, into whose family the estate passed in 1659, after having ranked since the 13th century as a royal fortress of some importance. The present castellated mansion—with the long sloping roofs, high and narrow gables, and the spire-crowned tower, common to Danish residences of this kind—retains much that belonged to the original stronghold, of which, however, it is a re-adaptation, rather than a restoration. Surrounded by fine woods, in which oaks form an exceptionally large proportion, and built on one of the softly rounded heights which are characteristic of the district, Tranekjær Castle

forms a specially attractive feature of the scenery ; while between Langeland and Fyen, the little islet of Tåssinge, once the property of the Juel family, rises like a picturesque garden out of the surrounding waters, and from its highest point, at Bragninge churchyard, affords a panoramic view of great beauty, which comprises all the islands lying between South Seeland and Slesvig.



TRANEKJER CASTLE.

CHAPTER X.

Jutland: its character, divisions, population, towns—Kolding on the Slesvig frontier—Fredericia: its origin; siege; the national monument, *Den danske Landsoldat*—Vejle: its antiquity; associations—The Jellinge mounds of Thyra and Gorm—Prison of Horsens—Skanderborg: Christian IV. and his sister Anne; Frederik IV., the bigamist—Himmelfjærgen, Denmark's only mountain; scenery of the district—Århus: its prosperity; local improvements—Kallø, the prison of Gustav Vasa—Randers: its gloves; "fat ale;" and peasant dresses—Frjisenborg, the largest estate in Denmark—Klausholm, the home of the Reventlovs—The churches of the neighbourhood—Mariager—Seats of the old nobility—Witches—Kokkenmøding of Meilgård—Old Estrup.

A TRAVELLER in search of the picturesque will not find much to interest him in Jutland, for the country is generally flat and bare, and its only high ground is in the interior, where the northernmost extremity of the Hartz Mountain system forms a central line of division between western and eastern Jutland. In the former, sands, heaths, fens, and turf-bogs are the prominent features; but in the latter, especially where the land has been long in the occupation of wealthier proprietors able to cultivate it with care,

well-grown woods and good pasture-ground are not uncommon ; while along the middle line of hills a number of lakes and streams give beauty to the scenery, which at many points is remarkable for the luxuriance of the vegetation.

Jutland, which has an area of nearly 9800 square miles, is divided into ten "Amter," and has twenty-six towns possessed of burgher rights, although few retain any importance, or have more than 10,000, while the greater number have only from 2000 to 4000 inhabitants. The entire population of 875,000 is, therefore, principally supplied by the rural districts, where the land is generally divided into small holdings, which are in the occupation of the Bønder, or peasant proprietors.

The first town reached after entering the Peninsula by the Fyen route from Middelfart, across the Little Belt, is Kolding, the frontier-station between Slesvig and Jutland. This once important little town, which is well-placed on the sloping banks of a fjord, has nothing left but a few ruined remains of the "Koldinghus," to recall its association with the earlier Danish kings, who built the castle and often held their Court here. But its position between the Slesvig-Holstein territory and the Islands has involved it in every war between Denmark and the Duchies, from the 12th century

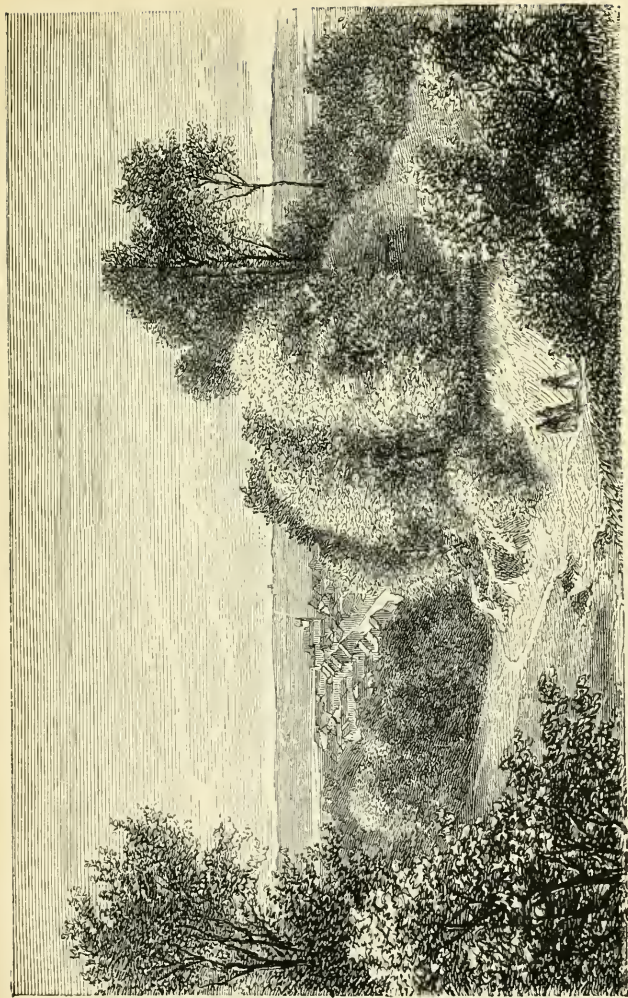
to our own days, and in the late war it was a somewhat active centre of political party feeling; but since the close of the struggle, Kolding, which has now 7000 inhabitants, has turned aside from politics, and begun to show signs of industrial activity. As the very opposite to this ancient royal burgh, Fredericia presents the traveller on his progress northward with the aspect of a comparatively spick-and-span newly-made town, with straight, wide streets intersecting each other at right angles, and mapped out into square "blocks," which, not having found the population whose requirements of building they were intended to satisfy, have been converted into fields and gardens. This place, which now numbers 7200 inhabitants, owes its origin to Frederik III. (the cousin of Charles I. of England), and was designed to be a haven of refuge for Jutlanders in time of war, for which end it was well fortified, according to the notions of the age, and provided with ample space within the lines to receive large numbers of fugitives. But although it was supposed to be especially well placed for strategical purposes, by its vicinity to the coast of Fyen, from which supplies might easily be obtained, it has not hitherto proved its efficiency as a place of defence. Its name is, however, inseparably associated with some

brilliant episodes of war, for it was here that in the Slesvig-Holstein campaign of 1849, the Danes, under General Bülow, after having sustained a two months' siege, and seen the town of Fredericia reduced to ashes, made a sortie, in which they took 30 field-pieces and upwards of 3000 small arms from the besiegers, who were beaten and forced to retire. The victory was complete, but it was dearly bought by the Danes, who lost some of their best officers, including General Rye, on whom the hopes of the nation had been specially fixed, and Fredericia preserves in the monument by Bissen, known as "*den danske Landsoldat*," a worthy monument of those who fell in the engagement of July 6, 1849.

Widely different from Fredericia is its northern neighbour, Vejle, a quiet little town of 7000 inhabitants, which is built on a well cultivated strip of land running down towards the mouth of a clear and deep fjord, and, instead of having been created by royal order in comparatively modern times, is one of the most ancient Danish cities, whose history goes back to ages preceding the reign of Gorm the Old, who held his court here, as earlier kings had done. Century after century the Danish kings came here to meet the nobles of North Jutland, and it was after a Diet held at Vejle, in 1523, that

Christian II. received from the hands of the Chief Judge, Mogens Munk, a glove in which lay a crumpled strip of vellum, on which the Jutish nobles announced in few and terse words that being weary of the king's tyranny, they renounced their allegiance, and chose in his place his uncle, Duke Frederik. On the receipt of this missive, the king was seized with an unaccountable panic, and refusing to listen to the counsel of his friends, he embarked in haste for Copenhagen, and soon afterwards betook himself to the Low Countries with his young queen, Elizabeth, sister of the Emperor Charles V., to seek help from his powerful brother-in-law.

No other district in Jutland possesses so rich and varied a vegetation as Vejle, which is the only spot in Denmark where the yew grows wild, or the holly attains the size of a full-grown tree. But, apart from its natural beauty, the chief interest of the place centres in the Kongehöje, twin-mounds, beneath which Harald Blåtand buried his father, Gorm the Old, and his mother, Thyra, surnamed the "Danes' Pride." These interesting tumuli, which are the highest and largest of their kind in the north, stand on either side of the little church of Jellinge, west of Vejle, before which are two runic stones, one of which Gorm erected in honour of his queen, while the other was set up by Harald



VIEW NEAR VEJLE.

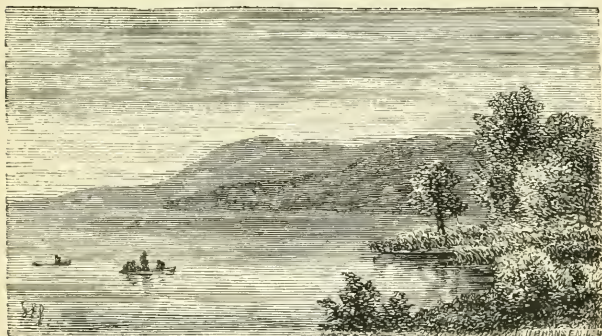
in memory of his parents. When these mounds were explored their sepulchral chambers were found to have been lined with painted wooden plates, over which hangings had been suspended, and among the numerous objects extracted from the graves was a silver-gilt goblet, having an outer ornamentation of interlinked serpents, which is now in the Museum of Northern Antiquities.

North of Vejle, on a fjord of inconsiderable depth stands Horsens, which, with its factories, picturesque old houses, well kept streets, and handsome public buildings, has the appearance of an active and prosperous place, and which, with its population of 12,600, may rank among the foremost of Danish trading towns. The most prominent object in its suburbs is the jail, the largest of its kind in the kingdom, which has been built and organized on the Auburn system, and is adapted to receive 400 male prisoners and a small number of women, who are able by good conduct to shorten the term for which they have been sentenced.

About fifteen miles north of Horsens lies Skanderborg, a prettily situated little place with 1800 inhabitants, and now chiefly interesting for its association with the childhood and early youth of Denmark's most gifted king, Christian IV., bro-

ther-in-law of James I. of England and VI. of Scotland. This prince, who succeeded his father Frederik II. in 1588, at the age of eleven, was kept in tutelage under his guardians till his twentieth year ; but although jealously excluded from all participation in affairs of State, he was suffered to amuse himself after his own inclinations, and it is related that having from his boyhood taken special delight in marine pursuits, he planned a miniature man-of-war, and navigated it himself on the lake of Skanderborg, in the middle of which lay the ancient royal castle, which had been appropriated to his use. Nothing now remains of this memorable lake-dwelling but one tower, and the chapel, which is used as a parish church. Here Anne of Denmark, mother of our Stuarts, who first saw the light at Skanderborg, the 12th of December 1574, was baptized in great state, and here, in 1712, was enacted the strange scene of the bigamous marriage of Frederik IV. with Anna Sofie, daughter of his chancellor, Count Reventlov. The manner in which the royal lover had carried on his wooing savoured more of the headstrong passion of a youth than is reconcilable with his then mature age, and his usual good sense and cool judgment ; for finding that neither the lady nor her family were disposed to favour his

irregular suit, he carried her off by night from her father's house, Klausholm, near Randers, and brought her in all haste to Skanderborg Castle, where a bishop, who had been summoned for the purpose, performed the marriage service with a readiness that does not give us a very favourable opinion of the Danish clergy, at the beginning of the 17th century.



HIMMELBJÆRGET.

Between Skanderborg and Silkeborg lies the Himmelbjærg, Denmark's solitary representative of a mountain. This alpine pigmy, which rises little more than 500 feet above the level of the sea, is best reached by the chain of picturesque lakelets known as Brassö, Borresö, Julsö, and Birkesö, which are connected together by various winding brooks and

canals, and skirted by gently sloping, well-wooded banks. At the Birkesö, a beaten track leads from the water's edge to the Kol, or summit of the Himmelbjærg, through beech woods and over heather-covered slopes, which present numerous points of view of considerable beauty, but which, from the exceptional character of the scenery, have acquired a local reputation for grandeur to which they cannot justly lay claim. Still, if not grand, the prospect from the Kol is singularly attractive from the many varied combinations of water, heath, and wood which it presents; and the ascent of the hill well repays the slight exertion required to reach the summit, while the lower levels of the lakes, with their many varied surroundings, are even more interesting, as showing the special characteristic features of Danish sylvan scenery. Here, between the Langsö and the Brassö, the old bishops of Århus built themselves a pleasant summer retreat, known as Silkeborg, which, like all other ecclesiastical domains, became the property of the Crown after the Reformation. Since that time it has passed through the hands of various private owners, until, in 1845, it was finally appropriated to industrial purposes, and converted into flourishing paper-mills under the Messrs. Drewsen, to whose enterprise the

neighbourhood is indebted for an appreciable increase in the local prosperity, without any counter-acting injury to its natural beauty.

North of Skanderborg lies Århus, which, with its 25,000 inhabitants, may lay claim to stand at the head of Danish provincial towns. No other port in Denmark has made such rapid strides to commercial importance, and although the impetus given to its activity within the last few years is mainly due to its position on an open part of the shores of the Cattegat forming a good centre for the trade of the Peninsula, which reaches it by railways communicating with all the other towns of the province, Århus owes much of its present prosperity to the enterprise of its citizens, who have deepened and widened their harbour, and by means of bridges across the little stream that intersects the town, and of tramways, and new roads, have greatly facilitated the means of access to the port. A few old houses help to redeem the general uniformity of the newly-built quarters, and in the town-hall may be seen an interesting collection of runic stones and other objects bearing evidence of the antiquity of the place, whilst, among several other institutions, its local natural history museum, and its collection of modern Danish paintings deserve special notice. The crowning

interest of Århus is, however, its cathedral, which has for some time been undergoing repairs, which will not be completed before 1884. This church, which claims to be the longest in Denmark, owed its foundation, in 1201, to one of Bishop Absalon's nephews, and in some of its older parts it still retains the rounded arches of the original building, and bears evidence, in the rudely carved anchor over the chief entrance, of its dedication to St. Clement. The exterior, which is finished, has an imposing appearance, with its massive tower and lofty spire over the west entrance, while even more characteristic are the pointed gables, elongated windows and slender round turrets of the eastern end; and in the interior some interesting monuments of the 16th century are to be found, besides a richly gilt and carved altar bearing the date of 1479. Another church worthy of note is Vor Frue Kirke, once a part of the Black Friars' monastery, which has also been undergoing recent and successful restoration, and is remarkable for the tower with its lofty spire, at the east of the building, abutting on the chancel.

North of Århus lies the little island Kallö, interesting for its castle—of which now nothing more than a few ruins remain—where Gustav Vasa was held a prisoner under the charge of his

kinsman, Erik Banner, Danish governor of the fort, who was bound in a penalty of 1600 gulden to keep strict guard over his prisoner. The capture of the young Vasa, in 1518, had been due to a breach of faith on the part of the Danish king, Christian II., who, after the conclusion of one of his wars in Sweden, had entered into a treaty with the Swedish commander, Sten Sture, and exchanged hostages with him in ratification of their compact; but, in defiance of honour and faith, he enveigled the hostages on board his own ship, and, setting sail in all haste, carried them to Denmark. The young Vasa, after two years confinement in Kallö, escaped disguised as a cattle-driver, and made his way after many hairbreadth escapes to Lybeck, where he received help to return to Sweden. The castle soon after these events was suffered to fall into decay, and with a strange indifference to the historical interest belonging to Kallö fortress, Christian V. allowed one of his natural sons to demolish its walls and to employ the materials in the building of the palace now known as Charlottenborg, in Copenhagen.

Randers, lying north of Kallö, on the Gudenå, is a well-built little town of 13,000 inhabitants, better known to strangers, perhaps, for the excellence of the gloves which it manufactures, than for its

numerous historical associations. Wars and fires have left it few of its older buildings; and although its churches contain some good carvings from by-gone times, they have been so often repaired as to have lost all claim to antiquity. As early as Svend Estridsen it coined its own money, and—what in regard to a Danish town is even a more certain gauge of its past prosperity—from that time forth it never escaped being a mark for the enemy in every war, civil and foreign, not excepting the latest of hostile occupations, in 1864, under the Prussians.

Randers long enjoyed a wide-spread reputation for its “fat ale,” whose strength was commemorated in the old saying, that “he who came sober and unbeaten from Randers might count himself a lucky mortal.” Its salmon and herrings were also once a greater source of wealth than they now are; but the breeding of cattle and horses, of which large numbers are annually sent to England, forms at present a very profitable branch of industry for the peasants of the neighbourhood, among whom may still be seen the silver-decorated old national dress, which the peasants of other parts of Jutland have almost discarded.

South of Randers the lands far and near belong to Count Frjls, the wealthiest representative of

Danish nobility, and here his splendid mansion, Frijsenborg, forms the chief attraction of the neighbourhood. The house, which is built in imitation of Frederiksborg Castle on a small island, with moats, bridge, and enclosing granite walls, is beautifully decorated and contains some good paintings and statuary. The property of Frijsborg is said still to include within its boundaries thirteen large estates and thirty-four churches, although its dimensions have been contracted in recent times. Of a far different character to Frijsenborg, is Klausholm, the old home of the Reventlovs, which, surrounded by extensive woods, forms the most picturesque feature in the country south-east of Randers. The house, which occupies the site of a more ancient building, known as Klaxholm, received its present form in 1699, when its terraced gardens were laid out in the stiff precise style introduced from France. Here the chancellor's daughter, Anna Sofie, was born, in 1699, and hither she returned to die of small-pox, in 1743, after having been banished from Court on the death of Frederik IV., who had married, and crowned her 'Queen of Denmark and Norway, the day following his first queen's burial.

Near Klausholm are several churches deserving notice: that at Voldum for its remains of *renais-*

sance carving ; that at Ålum, which dates from the 12th century, for its granite porch, and for its exceptionally large dimensions ; that of Skjern for its fine altar-carvings and the runic stones which have been inserted into the walls ; and those of Lem and Hald for their numerous remains of frescoes, and their well-preserved pictures and effigies of saints. In the churchyard of Svendrup lies buried the Danish novelist, S. S. Blicher, who, for thirteen years before his death, in 1848, was pastor of the parish ; and in this district, which may be characterized as the land of storks, from the number of these birds that make their nest on every available church steeple, or gabled roof, is situated the lay-convent of Stövringgard, with its noble old manor-house, dating back to the 13th century, and appropriated in a restored form to its present use since 1745, when the then proprietress devoted it in perpetuity to the maintenance and habitation of twelve unmarried, and poor ladies of noble or gentle birth. The house is charmingly situated on the beech-covered banks of the Lille Aa, where its gardens, laid out in the French style of the last century, its sheltering pine woods, and varied plantations, largely contribute to the general attraction of the spot.

North of Randers, at the end of a winding fjord,

lies Hobro, a little town (with 2300 inhabitants) of ancient origin but modern aspect, most of its houses being of more recent date than the great fires of 1812 and 1813, which laid it in ashes. In 1864, the Prussians used the church, before whose doors stands a runic stone, as a military hospital, and in the burying-ground stand side by side the graves of the Danish and Prussian soldiers who fell in the fight near Lundby, on July 3, 1864.

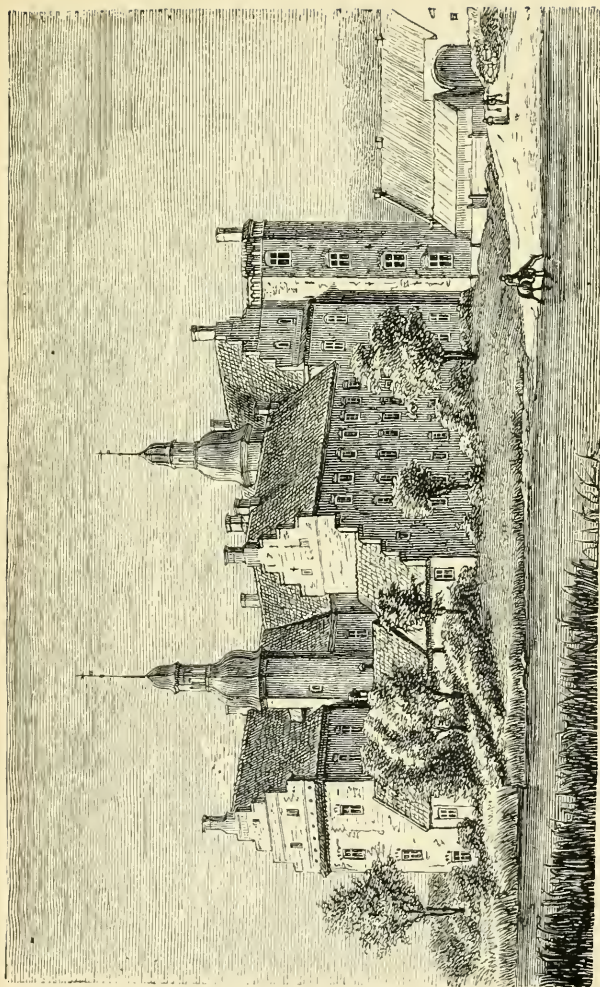
Following the southern banks of the fjord, past Glenstrup church, the sole memorial of one of the earliest of the Danish Benedictine monasteries, we reach a still more interesting site of past ecclesiastical foundations, at Mariager, which once could boast of a church so large that mass could be celebrated simultaneously at several altars without disturbing the various groups of worshippers, and a monastery so rich that the monks in journeying to Rome might sleep every night on land belonging to their house! Now all that remains of the church is one of the arches of the nave, the rest having been demolished in 1788, while of the conventual houses for monks and nuns founded, in 1400, by Otto Rosenkrands, which were reputed the richest in Denmark, and were suppressed in 1588, nothing survives but a few rooms in the central building of the manor-house, known as Mariagerkloster. Apart

from its associations, however, Mariager, which, with its 750 inhabitants, is one of the smallest towns in the kingdom, merits notice for its highly picturesque surroundings, and for the air of rural prosperity imparted to the place by the well-cultivated fruit-gardens, in which its houses are set as in a framework.

Between Århus and Randers the coast-line is carried abruptly out into the Cattegat, where an expansion of the main-land brings the longitude of Jutland as far east as 11° . On this eastern extension of the peninsula, in the Kallö Amt, are grouped together the family seats of several of the older nobility; and of these the most noted is Rosenholm, the ancient home of the Rosenkrandses, where the learned Holger Rosenkrands added, in 1620, an observatory to the mansion, which had been enlarged in 1569 by his grandfather, and still retains the tower which was then added to it. In the neighbouring church of Hornslet, the family have found a burial-place since the 15th century, and at Thorsager, where once stood a temple of the god Thor, we find a church connected with the still older family of the Hvides, which was founded by one of the race, Peder Vagnsen, the nephew of Bishop Absalon. This was one of the most ancient round churches

in Jutland, but little of the original building, which was restored in 1878, is left. Near Jernhatten, with its boldly advancing promontory, commanding charming views of the Cattegate, lies the wood-encircled manor-house of Rugård, whose two towers, pierced for the discharge of shot, are well-preserved relics of the 16th century style of defensive architecture. The pond known as "Smededam," outside the gates of Rugård, has the undesirable distinction of being one of the few places in Denmark where harmless women suffered death under the charge of witchcraft, for here in 1684, a proprietor of Rugård, Jörgen Arenfeld, known as the Witchhunter, caused several of these unhappy creatures to be drowned, after having nearly starved them to death within the dungeons of his castle. Ebeltoft, with 1400 inhabitants, and Greenå, with 2400, are the only townships of this district, and both mark the site of old vikingar stations. Near the former stands one of the finest specimens of sepulchral cairns, known as "Jættestuer," as yet discovered in Denmark, while north of the latter, in the beautiful beech wood of Aigholm, on the Mejlgård estate, lies one of the most noted of the Danish Kōkkenmōdding, or pre-historic shell-mounds, the discovery of which in 1850 has thrown so much light on the condition of early man. South-

west of Mejlgård, the quicksands have advanced into the woods, burying tall beeches and sturdy oaks, from amid whose branches there has sprung up a vigorous growth of heather, furze, and juniper, while here and there the still leafy crown of a beech may be seen protruding through the white sand. South-west of this barren district lies "Gammel Estrup," Old Estrup, one of the most characteristic specimens of *renaissance* architecture remaining in Denmark, whose history may be traced back to the 14th century. The present building is an imposing structure, with cupolas, towers, spires, and massive walls that belong to the early part of the 17th century, when it underwent its last process of restoration.



OLD ESTRUP.

CHAPTER XI.

Ålborg : its history, ancient remains, and former wealth ; its importance as a link in the chain of European intercommunication—The Vildmose—Lindenberg, the haunted house—The north of Jutland an empire of sand — The harbour of Frederikshavn—The island Læsö : the activity and taste of the women ; their dress—The desolation of Western Jutland—Viborg : its historical associations ; its churches ; the cathedral—Ahlheden, the scene of many historical events—The Heathmen—The changes being brought about by draining and planting—Esbjærg : its sudden rise—Fanö : its busy women—Ribe : its ancient laws—The memories attached to the Riberhus—Christian I., fatal compact with the knights and nobles of Slesvig and Holstein ; his cession of the Shetland and Orkney Isles.

ON the northern boundary of the mainland of Jutland, the only place of any consideration is Ålborg (14,000 inhabitants), one of the most ancient of Danish towns, which in the 11th century coined its own money, and through the middle ages retained sufficient wealth and importance to draw upon itself every storm of war that broke over the land. Yet notwithstanding assaults in Burgher Wars and Counts' Feuds, destructive fires

such as only Denmark has endured, and plunderings by Swedes and Germans, it has preserved a few memorials of the early prosperity of its citizens, among which the most worthy of note is the so-called "Jens Bangs Stenhus," known since 1670 as the "Svaneapothek," a red-brick, triple-gabled building, which, in spite of the coating of paint with which its rich *renaissance* gilt and coloured carvings have been covered, still bears traces of the exquisite taste and finish of its original design. Besides this, Ålborg has also several framework houses of the days of Frederik II. and Christian IV., while here and there a carved and painted gable-fronted building calls to mind the houses seen in old North-German towns, and forms a pleasant contrast to the general style of rural Danish street architecture.

Of Ålborg's seven churches of mediæval renown only two remain : St. Budolf's, with its handsome pierced spire, erected in 1779, after the old church had in the course of ages not merely been twice burnt, but even once been levelled with the ground by an earthquake—a less genuinely Danish mode of destruction,—and Frue Kirke, founded in 1100, and raised after the Reformation to the dignity of being the cathedral for the diocese, which had previously had its seat in Börglum. The present

building, which is the product of a thorough restoration completed in 1878, is of red brick in modern gothic, with a granite portico, and is noticeable for its well-proportioned free-standing columns, with their zigzag ornamentation on base and capital. In the so-called "Hospital," Ålborg has an interesting remnant of the old monastery of the Holy Ghost, with its original crypt, subterranean cells or recesses, and refectory. This monastic house, which was founded in 1430, was after the Reformation converted into an almshouse, and since its reorganization in 1852, and its restoration in 1878, it has maintained eighty inmates, and is one of the finest buildings of the town, while its exceptionally large revenues, derived from land and from a certain proportion of the tithes of 170 parishes, place it in the first rank of Danish charitable institutions. .

By means of a suspension-bridge across the Limfjord, which was formally opened by King Christian IX., in 1879, Ålborg has been made the connecting link in the line of railways which now carry the traffic of the Continent to the very extremity of Jutland, and thence, by the aid of steam navigation, from Frederikshavn to Sweden and Norway. South of the town stands Nørretranders Church, whose tower serves as a sea-mark, and

which, in spite of pitiless internal restorations, deserves notice as being one of the oldest granite churches remaining in the country, as well as for its richly carved porches. South of this point lies the so-called "Lille Vildmose," an extensive bog, in which every stage of development can be traced by which the original birch-trees have been converted into turf. Not far from this dreary tract, and as if in harmony with the weird and desolate character of the locality, stands Lindenberg, one of Denmark's oldest manorial residences, which has been deserted since 1688, owing to the evil repute of the lady who died there in that year, and who, according to popular tradition, expiated, by a death of horrible suffering, the many crimes she had committed in the thirty-five years of her stormy life—the murder of her husband, Klaus Dâ, not being reckoned among the blackest of these. As the granddaughter of Christian IV., through his morganatic marriage with Christina Munk, and allied by birth and marriage with the Rantzaus and other noble families, she escaped the penalty of her misdeeds during life, but after her death, public opinion reasserted itself by declaring that the home which had once been hers must be cursed for ever by the presence of her troubled spirit. This belief seems to have lost none of its

strength with time, and the walls of Lindenberg are still left empty, with nothing to disturb them but the assumed tread of her restless feet, and the mournful wail of her incessant cry for mercy.

North of Ålborg the Limfjord separates the mainland of the peninsula from its insular extremity, the Vendsyssel, a region in which sand is rapidly burying every form of vegetation, and leaving only a few beech woods, in exceptionally sheltered positions, to bear evidence of its earlier verdure. The fjord is of little importance in regard to navigation, since its greatest depth between the Cattegat and Ålborg is only ten feet, and further west not more than six feet, while at its outlet on the German Ocean, the sand accumulates so rapidly that in spite of canals the passage is unavailable except for the smallest craft. The commercial prosperity of North Vendsyssel is, therefore, dependent on the line of railway which has been carried from Ålborg to Frederikshavn, earlier known as Flade, where the construction of a roomy and deep harbour has changed this once exposed fishing-station into a haven of refuge for ships going round the Skagen, and established a good trading-port, in connexion with the commercial traffic between Sweden, and the western continent of Europe.

Notwithstanding the general prevalence of sand,

the neighbourhood of Frederikshavn is beginning to show the beneficial result of recent extensive planting, and the village of Byrum, on the opposite little island of Læsö, can boast of productive gardens and thriving plantations of beech and birch. For these evidences of industry and taste the island is almost solely indebted to its feminine inhabitants, as the men and boys pass most of their lives at sea, and only return home when winter storms put a stop to the fishing and coasting trade. On festive occasions the Læsö women wear a picturesque attire, made especially effective by a number of silver chains and buckles—heirlooms, as are even sometimes their heavily embroidered boddices and caps—but on ordinary occasions, they bind a white handkerchief over their heads and shoulders, which gives them a nun-like appearance.

On either side of Frederikshavn the dreary desolation of this empire of sand displays itself in all its horrors on the shores of the Cattegate, although somewhat inland, as at Voergård, the banks of the streams are clothed in verdure, and the old, finely sculptured manor-house, to which the Voer gives its name, is surrounded by gardens and woodlands. These, however, are only mere specks on the ocean of sand. At Sæby, the hapless townspeople have seen their harbour silted up before their eyes ; while

at Hjörning, which was once the capital of this extremity of Jutland, quicksands have buried the woods and roads, and left the town standing solitary, and exposed to all the winds of heaven, with its trade cut off for want of means of access to its lading-port at Lökken on the North Sea. But worst of all, perhaps, is the fate of Skagen, the "Klitby," or sand-bank-town, where the inhabitants, lashed by the storms of two seas, are forced to build their houses in detached groups under the lee of sand-banks, and where the old church dedicated to St. Lawrence—and erected in mediæval times by the Scotch and Dutch traders who frequented the coast on account of its good fisheries—has long been swallowed up by billows of sand, from which emerges only a part of the tower, which now serves as a mark for seamen.

At Thisted, on the south-western extremity of the Limfjord, the same story repeats itself. On the Sjørring and other lakes are the ruins of churches, castles, and homesteads, buried in the sand; and everywhere present decay, and the traces of past prosperity bear testimony to the destructive force with which the sea, on this part of the peninsula, has usurped its dominion over the land. It is only on the little island of Morsö that any trace of vegetation is to be seen, and here, under the shelter of the sand-

hills of the north-west coast, the peasants are able to till the ground with some hope of gathering in a scanty crop of hay and barley ; while they have, moreover, a constant source of industry in the lime quarries of the district, which give occupation to a large number of workmen, and thus rescue the little town of Nykjöbing, which is the principal place in the island, from sinking into the state of decay to which neighbouring townships have fallen. Skive, which lies south of Nykjöbing on the extremity of the Sallingland isthmus, is beginning to rival it in industrial activity, and although it has not more than 3000 inhabitants, it is a place which is evidently making successful efforts, by the building of a good harbour, to avail itself of its advantageous position at the outlet of a navigable stream, which flows into the Limfjord. It is also a good point from which to reach Viborg, which lies in the very centre of the peninsula, and is at once the seat of the existing administrative power for north Jutland, and the site of the ancient Vebjærg, or consecrated hill, where, in Odinic times the priest-kings of Jutland were elected. Next to Copenhagen and Fredericia, Viborg has a larger area than any other town in Denmark, while its population barely numbers more than 7600, nor has it ever been a populous place, although there is scarcely

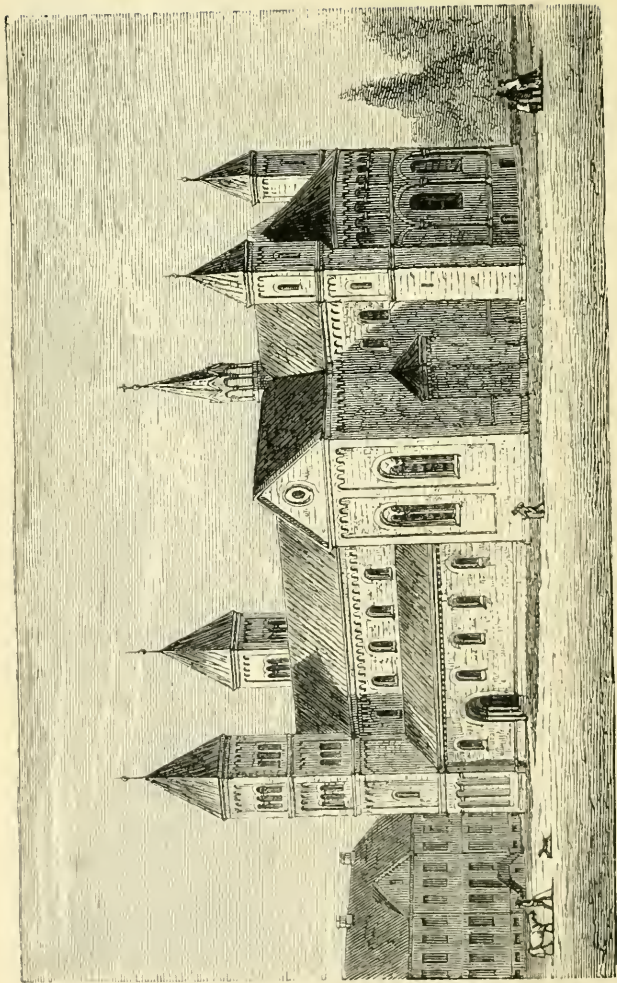
a page of Danish history on which its name is not recorded. Here, on a hill known as Dannerlyng, every duly elected king received the homage of the Jutlanders. Hither, as one of the most important Danish trading-places, Icelanders came as early as the 10th century, to buy the goods needed for the commerce of their island-home—a transaction which was usually preceded by the conversion and baptism of the traders—here the first Danish money was coined, under Canute the Great—here the nobles of Jutland held their Diet; and here too was long held the great annual fair, known as the “Snapsthing” from the initial letters of the words “*Sessionis Novi Anni Primæ*.”

The historical associations connected with the Diets held at Viborg carry with them no inconsiderable amount of romantic interest. Thus it was here, that at a great Thing, or Diet, held in 1102, Erik Ejegod, the bravest, handsomest, and most accomplished of Svend Estridsen’s five kingly sons, announced to the assembled people his intention of making a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, in expiation of a murder, which in the heat of sudden passion he had perpetrated on one of his own serving-men. This announcement was met with loud cries and vehement expostulations by the Jutlanders, who pressed round the king, en-

treating him to remain in his kingdom, and declaring, that they would give the third of their substance to pay the fines imposed by the Church for homicide. But Erik refused to listen to their entreaties, took ship at Vejle with his queen Botilda, and went forth on his pilgrimage till death arrested his further course at Paphos, whence his faithful companion made her way to the Holy Land, where she too found a grave before she could reach the gates of Jerusalem.

With the Reformation the glory of Viborg departed. By order of the reforming king, Frederik I., nine of its twelve churches were razed to the ground in 1529, and in course of time one after the other of its twelve monastic houses was suppressed. Of its three remaining churches, the cathedral, or "Our Lady's Church," alone merits notice, and this, unhappily, more for its past associations than for its still existing memorials of bygone times. Founded early in the 11th, and rebuilt in the 12th century, it continued for 300 years to be the noblest specimen of a Roman-Greek basilica in Denmark, and, next to St. Knud's, at Odense, ranked as the most venerated of Danish churches. With a special canonized saint of its own, known as St. Kjeld, whose remains rested before one of its sixteen altars, and a profuse





VIBORG CATHEDRAL.

treasury of sanctified relics, the last of which were preserved till the fire of 1726, Viborg Cathedral long enjoyed exceptional renown, but two fires in the 16th century, in addition to this later one, have left little of the original building remaining but the fine crypt, and part of the chancel and apse. In 1863, when the work of restoration was begun, it was found that a great part of the old stone walls, scorched and cracked by fire, still stood below the later coatings of bricks and plaster which they had received when the church was rebuilt under Frederik IV., and these have been left intact in the late restorations, which have given Viborg a renovated mother-church of which Denmark may be justly proud. The cost of the undertaking has been met by a grant of the Diet (in 1863) of 400,000 kr. and by private subscriptions.

South-west of Viborg, in the neighbourhood of Hald, where once flourished extensive woods and a royal chase, stretches a seemingly endless heath, known as Ahlheden. The whole of this district, where peaceful Danish soldiers are now annually encamped for military exercises, is haunted with memories of civil war and royal murders. Thus it was at Gråhede, that Valdemar the Great defeated his rivals in 1157, and secured the undivided sovereignty; while near

by, at Finderup, his descendant, Erik Glipping, in 1286, held his last hunt, and perished at the hands of traitors—a royal tragedy that is brought vividly before the readers of Ingemann's novel, "Erik Menved." Here and there the dreary monotony of heath and moors is broken by wooded, or cultivated land, as at Vium, the birth-place of the novelist Blicher, who has made this part of Jutland the scene of many of his tales, and well portrayed the strange heathmen, who, under the name of "Natmænd," or "Kjæltringer," lead a wandering vagabond life on these wastes, and gain a precarious subsistence by tinkering, and other occupations that point, no less than their strange usages, to a gipsy origin. At Karup, the traveller's attention is agreeably arrested by the sight of a tract of land, extending fourteen or fifteen miles in length, on which, first, through the enterprise of a private individual, Jens Stoulund, and subsequently by the labours of an agricultural society, well-stocked farms have been made to replace the barren moors of older times. And here, through the skilful application of draining, irrigating and planting, 16,000 tons of land have been converted into good arable ground, sheltered by flourishing plantations, and irrigation-pipes and canals, measuring more than 100 miles in length, have been laid down.

Nor is this the only district, in which the enterprise and energy of the modern Jutlander, in his hard struggle with nature, are made manifest, for on the whole length of the western coast, where all the older towns had fallen into decay, signs of improvement are apparent. Everywhere land is being planted and redeemed in spite of heath, bog, and sand ; and railways are being carried up to the edge of every fjord, that can yield enough fish to make a semblance of industry. Between Holsterbro and Vemb the extensive plantations, which are clothing the country with verdure, have already obliterated the mounds, in which, according to tradition, lay buried a number of Englishmen, who in ancient days were slain in a hard-fought battle on the heath, which still bears the name of "England's Moor." Near by, the Nissum fjord, which sand-banks had converted into an inland sea, is also being successfully drained under the direction of an English Company, while well-grown pine-woods are beginning to give shelter to the long line of downs, which stretch between that fjord and the still larger one, on which stands the little town of Ringkjöbing, that had long been shut in by an impenetrable reef of sand.

Varde, whose ancient name was Warwith, and which once enjoyed the reputation of being a

thriving place, has been left without trade or trading-port, by the silting up of the little river on which it was built; while its not less ill-fated neighbour, Hjerting—which, for a time, served it as the place of lading for its sole branch of industry, the so-called “Jydepotter,” or Jutland earthenware pots—has had to resign its trade, such as it was, to Esbjerg. The latter wonderful little port, that has sprung up, mushroom-like, since 1866, has suddenly become the chief place of export for the cattle which regularly supply the London market. With something of the go-ahead nature of a town in the Far West, its thirteen original settlers, who watched the laying down of the first stone of its harbour works, are now represented by upwards of 1400 inhabitants, who, amongst several other useful undertakings, have established good bathing-places, on the opposite little island of Fanö. The male population of this little island constitutes a sea-faring and fishing community, in whose absence the women plough the land, sow and reap the crops, and otherwise manage the affairs of their insular state with remarkable ability and decision. In return for these services the men, during their stay on land in the winter, take their share in knitting, sewing, and other household occupations, when they are not engaged

in the ship-building that is carried on, with some activity, at Nordby, the one town of the island. And here the brightly painted gables of the houses, and the dress of the women, which resembles that worn on Amager Island, form decidedly picturesque features in the landscape of Fanö.

On the mainland, south of the island, we reach in Ribe the last town on the Jutland side of the boundary-line which separates the Danish dominions from the lands occupied by the Germans. Lying within an enclave of Slesvig, five miles south of the Kongeå, and nearly as far from the sea, which it can reach only by means of a canal opening into the Nipså, this once busy trading-port has lost all its commercial importance, and has now less than 4000 inhabitants. Already in the 11th century it ranked as the most prosperous centre of Danish trade, and even then, as well as through the middle ages, it included horses, meat, butter, fish, and corn among its exports. In the 13th century, it obtained from king Erik Glipping a civic code, in which Spartan severity and Connecticut austerity seemed to have formed the prominent characteristics; death being awarded for petty theft, and heavy fines inflicted for any infringement of the rules of conduct prescribed for citizens within their own doors. In the next century, however, an

amendment in favour of feminine offenders was added to the law, it being decreed, that, "women guilty of stealing should, for the honour of their sex, be burnt alive, instead of being hanged as they well deserved;" while "scolding wives, by carrying a stone round their necks when they went to market, might be spared the worse punishment they merited." Ribe, however, did not stand alone in the merciless sternness of its civic laws, for the codes of Slesvig, Odense, and other Danish towns, were all conspicuous in the middle ages for their severity, which far exceeded that of the laws passed at the Diets for the rural districts. Yet the men of Ribe cannot be acquitted of having been exceptionally slow in learning the more merciful lessons taught by later times, and at the period of the general witch-raids, their town had the undesirable distinction of sending more victims to the stake than any other.

The early wealth of Ribe is proved by the rich endowments of its twenty churches and religious houses, and its numerous guilds, of which eighteen were still flourishing at the time of the Reformation. Only two of its churches remain, and of these the cathedral especially merits notice on account of the grandeur and harmony of its design, although the variety of materials, used in the construction of the

building, betrays the various periods at which it has undergone distinct reparations. Its most remarkable features are its massive western tower, designed as an armoury and watch-tower, the cupola over the choir, the pillared apse, and the well-preserved *bas-reliefs* on the granite portal of the southern door.

In the "Riberhus," of which not a vestige now remains, the town long retained a memorial of the times of the Valdemars, who often held their Court here. Few royal residences found more frequent mention in the Kæmpeviser, or national ballads, which have preserved for us the record of some of the royal loves and hates that flamed and died out within its walls; but, in addition to these, the castle is associated with one disastrous act, from which have sprung the long series of troubles, whose final result has been the severance of Slesvig and Holstein from Denmark. For it was here that, in the year 1460, Christian I., first of the Oldenburg line, signed a compact with the nobles and knights of those provinces, by which, in return for the title of Count-Duke of Slesvig and Holstein, and a shadowy semblance of power, he promised, for himself and his heirs, that the electors should be left in undisturbed enjoyment of all the rights and privileges which they claimed, and that the terri-

tories of Holstein and Slesvig should for ever remain undivided ("Ewig tosamende ungedceelt"). The folly of Christian in agreeing to the terms proposed by the nobles of these States was the greater from the fact that, at that very moment, Slesvig, by the death without heirs of its last feudatory tenant, Count Adolf of Holstein, lapsed to the Danish Crown under which it had been long held, and that, consequently, the question of right of succession was limited to Holstein, which was a fief of the German empire. But the Oldenburg prince, in his eagerness to add a ducal coronet to the three crowns that had so unexpectedly fallen to him, bartered away his descendants' rights to Slesvig, leaving them to reap the harvest of troubles of which he had so recklessly cast the seed. Nor is his acceptance of the Slesvig-Holstein compact the only one of his acts by which the dismemberment of the monarchy was accelerated, for this king, not inaptly named "The purse with a hole in it," being unable to replace the 60,000 gulden given him by his subjects as a dowry for his daughter, Margaret, on her marriage with James III. of Scotland, resigned the Shetland and Orkney Isles to his son-in-law, in pledge for the money which he had allowed to run out of his bottomless purse; the result being, that as these lands were not redeemed within the

appointed time, they became the property of the Scottish Crown.

The line that Christian founded in Denmark is extinct, but the consequences of his acts seem destined never to die out. And nowhere, perhaps, are these brought more prominently into view than at Ribe, which, standing on the treeless plain that marks the fusion of the lands of Jutland with those of Slesvig, sees, in the boundary that Germany has drawn past its very gates, the fatal after-fruits of the Slesvig-Holstein compact, signed four hundred years ago in the old Riberhus.

CHAPTER XII.

Danish colonies — Greenland : its physical character ; its long neglect ; its re-settlement, and present condition—The Færö Islands : their position ; inhabitants ; character ; products ; constitution—The Danish West Indian Islands : their character ; towns ; and condition—Iceland : its position ; area ; population ; climate ; physical and geological character ; its Jökuls ; springs ; and islands ; its fauna and flora ; its mineral products—The crops and cattle of the island ; its sources of industry ; trade and revenue.

THE Danish people have never proved themselves to be good colonists, and although their early conquests in some of the fairest lands of Europe gave them more favourable opportunities than any possessed by the other northern nations for making permanent settlements, they have nowhere taken root on foreign soil. One by one, the conquests of their early princes have been lost to the monarchy, and in the present day the few colonies dependent on Denmark, excepting only its small West-Indian possessions, are of Norwegian origin, and owe their association with the Danish Crown solely to the union of Norway with Denmark in the 14th century.

The largest and least valuable of the Danish colonies is Greenland, whose ice-bound limits defy all attempts at precise definition, but whose less firmly closed area may be assumed to exceed that of the mother-country more than two and a half times. In this inhospitable region, whose interior presents the appearance of a vast and deeply moved sea turned to ice, and whose shores serve as the cradle of the huge icebergs, which carry glacial cold across the ocean to the old and the new continent, Denmark has in recent times made repeated attempts to maintain a colony, and, by its careful attention to the moral and religious training of the native Eskimo tribes, has endeavoured to atone for the earlier neglect of the mother-country, which, after the Black Death, in 1350, had left the unhappy settlement to perish from want, and from inability to defend itself against the attacks of savages. After centuries of utter oblivion, the existence of Greenland was remembered. The Danish king, Frederik IV., with his habitual energy, bestirred himself to redeem the sins of his monarchy, and, in 1721, founded the port of Godthåb, and induced a colony to settle there ; while, in the same year, Hans Egede and his family set forth to preach Christianity to the savage Eskimos, who, since his time, have never been left without religious and other instruc-

tion, and at the present time the 10,000 native Greenlanders, who, with a couple of hundred Danes, constitute the entire population, all profess Christianity, and are able to read and write. They are kept, however, in absolute dependence on the mother-country; and the Greenland trade, which was founded in 1723, and whose average annual value is about one and a half million Kr., is still a Government monopoly. Its centre is at Upernivik on the west coast, where, for a short season, the port is open to navigation, and the supplies for the year are received, and cargoes of train-oil, whale-bone, skins and other articles of barter, are despatched to the home markets.

In the Færö Islands, Denmark has a far different and more independent colony, for this interesting little archipelago, which lies in 62° N. lat., and about 6°—7° W. long., and which forms a solitary group in the North Atlantic, with an area of not more than 500 square miles, is occupied by about 11,000 inhabitants, whose hardihood and energy have secured for them perfect political and commercial independence. The social institutions and political rights of the islanders, which, are essentially those of Denmark Proper, are guarded at home by the existence of a legislative Chamber, known as the Lagthing, and in the mother-country by the presence in the Danish

Landsting of a special representative for the islands. The archipelago consists of thirty-five islands, of which only seventeen are inhabited, Strömö, being the seat of the capital, Thorshavn, and the centre of local life and industry. The country generally is mountainous, presenting on the shores of the deep fjords a succession of trap and basaltic formations, which rise in so-called "Hamre," or terraces, to a height of nearly 3000 feet, and afford excellent pasture for sheep on the thin stratum of short grass that covers the rock. The introduction of these animals, is referred to the earliest settlers, the "Westmen," or Irish, and from their presence on the islands, when the group was permanently colonized by Norsemen, the name "Færöer," (Fær, sheep, Oër, isles) has been derived. Here and there a seam of coal occurs, and, amongst other minerals, some fine specimens of zeolithes are to be found ; but the principal sources of local industry are derived from fishing and the rearing of sheep.

Besides these meagre colonial possessions—for Iceland does not rank as a Danish colony—Denmark owns in the Antilles the small islands of St. Croix, St Thomas, and St. John, whose area of 120 square miles is occupied by 37,000 inhabitants, the greater number of whom are blacks or mulattoes.

The first-named of the islands is highly productive, although, owing to various causes, the sugar crops, on which its prosperity depends, have of late years ceased to yield satisfactory returns. It is also the seat of the Governor, and has two towns, Christiansted and Frederiksted, the former of which contains the Government offices, and is the focus of social life ; while the town of St. Thomas, on the island of the same name, has become an active centre of commercial intercommunication since this port, which is free, has been made the principal West-Indian coaling-station for British and other steamers.

The value to the mother-country of these, and its North Atlantic colonies, is more than doubtful, but the relations which it maintains with them are simple and easy, for although the Danes, with the sensitiveness of a highly cultivated and small nation that has fallen from its former better fortunes, may be disposed to think themselves the victims of fate, while they are also perhaps somewhat deficient in energy and enterprise, they are upright, kind-hearted, and unassuming. But unhappily for the Danish people, they have been called upon in the present day to atone for a long-continued course of unjust colonial policy inaugurated under the rule of despotic kings, for whose acts the nation was entirely irresponsible. This

is especially the case in regard to Iceland, which after having placed itself in the 13th century under the protection of the Norwegian kings, became associated with the Danish monarchy, when, a century later, Norway was united with Denmark under one sceptre.

The conditions under which this association was to subsist early became a vexed question, which was rendered still more difficult of solution after the establishment in Denmark, in 1660, of absolute sovereignty, by which all pre-existing relations between prince and people were radically changed. The acquisition by the Danish people within the last 50 years of constitutional freedom was not extended to the Icelanders, in the form which they demanded, and the result of the want of concession shown by both parties was to create disaffection among the Islanders, and indifference to their grievances among Danes. The causes of this antagonistic state of feeling have, however, now been happily removed; and since 1874 the old Norse colony has been put into possession of its long-coveted constitutional right of making its own laws, which, while it secures the future welfare of the island, will, it is to be hoped, be accepted in condonation for past political shortcomings on the part of Denmark.

An exact definition of the geographical relations of Iceland partakes of some of the difficulties which beset the correct designation of its political status, for lying in mid-ocean between Europe and America, and at a distance of more than 1000 miles from its foster mother-land, it is not easy to say to which of the two continents it belongs.

Its position in 63° — $66^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. and $13^{\circ} 30'$ — $24^{\circ} 45'$ W. long., on the very boundary of the Arctic Circle, exposes it to the action of two opposite currents, the Gulf Stream and the Polar Current, the former of which brings a constant flow of warmer waters to the coasts, while the latter as constantly carries the colder waters of the Arctic Sea to the northern shores of the island, which, at intervals of a few years, have visitations of extraordinary cold, during which icebergs of great size are drifted ashore, the fish are killed and vegetation injured, if not destroyed. This current has, however, the one merit in common with the Gulf Stream, that it brings with it large quantities of drift-wood, and thus contributes towards the supply of one of the greatest wants of this treeless island.

The area of Iceland is about 40,000 square miles, but of this nine-tenths are unsuited to human habitation, being occupied by volcanic mountains, glaciers, ice-covered fjælds, and sandy plains; while

the habitable districts form a mere fringe only a few miles wide on the extensive and deeply indented coast-line, which sustains a population of 72,000. This number is the largest yet reached in Iceland, where the abolition, in late years, of onerous trade monopolies has begun to give a stimulus to native industry, and where increased intercourse with foreigners has recently led to the adoption of various improvements in building, and in the habits of the people, which are already influencing the previously high death-rate.

Owing to the opposing action of the Gulf Stream and the Polar Currents, the climate is subject to sudden and excessive variations, exhibiting great differences of temperature between the opposite sides of the island. Thus, while the mean annual temperature of Reykjavik in the south-west, in $64^{\circ} 8'$ N. lat., is $39^{\circ} 45'$ Fahr., that of Akureyri, in the north, in $66^{\circ} 30'$, is only 32° Fahr.—the winter and summer means for these stations being as follows: Reykjavik, W. 31° , S. 50° Fahr.; Akureyri, W. 24° S. 42° Fahr. February is the coldest, and July the hottest month. Considered generally, the climate of Southern Iceland may be regarded as insular, and that of the northern districts as continental. Thunderstorms, which rarely occur in summer, are not unusual in winter,

and calm weather at any period of the year is exceptional ; while, owing to the high latitude, the difference in the length of the days and nights is so great that, in 65° N. lat., the shortest day has only three hours' light, and the longest about as many hours of twilight. On the northernmost points of the island even these alternations are absent, and the shortest and the longest day consist respectively of almost unbroken darkness, or undimmed light. The *aurora borealis* is especially brilliant and persistent in an Iceland winter, which also presents the phenomenon, known as the snow-lights, from its frequent appearance before a snow-storm.

Iceland has a heart-shaped form, with the apex pointing south, and, excepting on the south-east, its coast-line is extensively cut by fjords and bays. Some of these, as the Faxa Fjörðhr and Breidi Fjörðhr in the west, which are separated only by a narrow neck of land, are of great size, the former being sixty miles across its entrance. In this bay lies Reykjavik, the capital ; and here, as well as in Breidi, are innumerable little islands, which derive importance from being the resort of enormous numbers of water-fowl, whose eggs and down constitute one of the principal sources of native wealth. North of the Breidi lies the north-west peninsula, known as Vestfirðingafjörðungr, which is indented

by numerous fjords. On the north coast, the largest bay is the Hunafloi, thirty-five miles across its mouth, and fifty miles in length, next in size to which is the Skagafjörðhr, the Skjalfandi, the Axar, and Thistil fjords. On the east, the fjords are numerous, but, excepting the Vopna and Reydar, they are generally short and narrow.

Iceland, which owes its origin to volcanic eruption, may be regarded as an elevated plateau, raised 2000 feet above the level of the sea, and fringed, especially on the fjords, by steep perpendicular rocks. It belongs to the tertiary and post tertiary formations, and presents the characteristics due to active, as well as to extinct, volcanic energy, associated with strongly marked evidences of glacial action. Thus, mountains, some of which are 6000 feet high ; lava-beds ; jökuls, or glaciers ; basaltic boulders ; pelagonite, tufa, and trap-formations ; solfataras ; vast fjælds of half-melted snow ; rapid mountain torrents ; barren and extensive heaths ; quaking bogs, and precipitous belts of rocks, form the prominent features of the landscape, while sheltered plains ; fertile tracts ; and valleys capable of cultivation, are but of exceptional occurrence. The interior of the country is almost wholly uninhabitable, the only exceptions being where tongues of extinct lava streams have run far inland, and

where, on this so-called "hraun," vegetation is developed, first as isolated streaks of grass, and, after a time, as one uniform covering of herbage. And while tufa and trap predominate in the fjælds, trachyte appears generally at isolated points, as in the Baula Mountain (3000 feet), whose light-coloured sides may be seen from great distances, standing out in bold relief against the surrounding darker formations. The trachytic rocks are generally mixed with a large percentage of alumina, but at Laugarfjall, on the banks of the Laxá, and at Krafla, in the north-east of the island, normal trachytes are met with. The chief centre of volcanic activity is in the south, where from forty to fifty eruptions have occurred within historic times from the great volcanoes of Hekla, and Kötlugjá Katla. The former of these, whose latest eruption occurred in 1878, belongs to the order of rock, characterized by Professor Bunsen as "normal pyroxenic," and which, together with "normal trachytic," constitutes the two principal groups under which the volcanic rocks of Iceland may be included.

The interior of the island is little more than a huge lava field (the Odáda Hraun), belonging to Trol-ladyngjur and Herdubreid, and other volcanoes, and extending as far north as Husavik, which, in 1872, experienced a considerable earthquake. On the

east and north-west of the island volcanic activity is no longer manifested, but everywhere the "jökuls," or glaciers, usurp large portions of the soil, and from these huge glacial beds innumerable streams are poured forth, which send their milk-white waters into the plains below with such force and volume, as often to create insurmountable barriers against the further approach of man, or animals. The most considerable of these jökul, or mountain streams are the Markarfljot, Thjorsá, Hvítá, and Kudaflljot in the south, the Heradsvötn, Blandá, Skialfanda, Jökulsá and Lagarfljot in the north and east, and the Hvita in the west. But while there are numerous other rivers of great length, the lake system of Iceland is only represented by a few pieces of water deserving special notice, as Myvatn in the north, Thingvalla, Arnarvatnsheidi and Hvitarvatn in the west.

The mineral springs of Iceland are locally distinguished as "Námar," Solfataras, or hot springs, which are found principally near Myvatn in the north, and at Krisuvik in the south, and the "Ölkeldur," or acid cold springs, found only in the Snæfjaldssýssel, which has no thermal springs. The so-called "Laugar," or hot baths, occur in many districts ; but the most noted are those near Reykjavik at Laugarnæs, where the temperature seldom falls be-

low 160° Fahr. The boiling intermittent, or so-called spouting springs, are divided into several groups, as the "Badstofa," or hot baths, of Reykir in the Arnasyssel, the true "Geysirs," gushers, in the Haukadal, and the "Öskrhóll," or bellowing springs, near the Langjökul, or "Long Glacier," which present the phenomenon of an intermittent play of waters and steam, accompanied by a deafening noise from a number of adjacent springs, which continue active for five or six minutes after intervals of two minutes' quietude.

The springs in the Reykholt valley have historic interest from their connexion with Snorre Sturlasson, who, in 1230, diverted the waters by means of a subterranean channel to supply the warm-baths of his house, which still exist.

The vast glacier-wall which covers a great part of the southern half of the island between the Okfjæld in the west, and the Vatna jökul in the east, is only passable at a few points, difficult of access even for horses. And here it should be observed that all journeys have to be made on horseback, and that the roads are nothing more than narrow tracks, which do not admit of the animals carrying burdens that project far on either side of the saddle. On the more desolate fjælds, pyramids of stones are ranged at certain distances to guide travellers ; and

although near Reykjavik, and some of the other trading-stations, considerable improvement has of late years been made in the condition of the bridle-paths, difficulties still attend travelling in the more rural districts.

The numerous insular groups, which fringe its southern and western shores, play an important part in the economy of Iceland, for besides their wealth of birds, and the facilities for fishing which they afford, they provide a substitute for other means of fuel in the dried nests, bones, and offal of the water-fowl which frequent them. These islets are for the most part uninhabited, or only temporarily occupied during the seasons for collecting plover and other eggs, eider-down, and feathers. Some, as the Flatey isles in the Breidi fjord, have, however, long been inhabited, and here a monastery was founded in the 11th century. Here too was found the *Codex Flateyensis*, well known to students of early Norwegian history; while another group, the "Hrapsey," or Countless Islands, was noted for its admirable press, from which many well-printed books were issued.

In such a world as Iceland, where glacial and volcanic agencies are engaged in a never-ceasing contention for the mastery of the earth and all that covers it, we cannot wonder at the meagreness

of its local fauna and flora. Of native animals it only owns one rodent, the snow-mouse (*Mus islandicus*). The horse, dog, and reindeer have been imported, with other animals useful to man, and although the arctic fox, with the polar bear, appears on the coasts, it is rather as an alien visitor; and while whales, and the more important seals of the northern seas, are frequently to be met with, the only native vertebrates that abound in Iceland are fishes, and birds. Of the latter there are enormous numbers, belonging chiefly to the waders and other shore and water-fowl, but the *Alca impennis*, the great auk, which once abounded on the coast-islands, is believed to be extinct; while the beautiful white *Porcellaria glacialis* is being so unsparingly taken when young that its speedy extinction is threatened. A similar fate is to be feared for the much-tried Eider-duck, whose race has for ages been exposed to a systematic spoliation of eggs, no less than of feathers, which if not practised with somewhat less recklessness must infallibly end in its extermination, as the Icelandic continues to take both eggs and down, until the smallness of the former, and the coarseness of the latter, shows that nature has reached the limits of her recuperative powers for that season. The little island, Videy, near Reykjavik,

ranks as the most important of the Eider stations as much as from 5000 to 6000 lbs. of the down being collected there annually ; and while on many of the other islands, curlews, snipes, plovers, guillemots, ptarmigans, and other varieties of black-cock are to be found in sufficient numbers to satisfy the cravings of the keenest sportsman, the presence, in most cultivated districts, during the short summer, of larks, thrushes, and wagtails, helps to give a more familiar character to the otherwise strange landscape.

The marine fishes of Iceland include sharks, cod, rays, haddock, holibut, and the so-called wolf-fish, *Anarrhichas Arcticus*, but salmon and trout are the only fresh-water fish. The species of shark eaten is the *Scymnus Microcephalus*, which is known as "Haskerdingr." Its large liver supplies an oily substance which is in great demand for tanning purposes, while its flesh, after undergoing a six months' course of burial and decay below the surface of the earth, and a subsequent drying in the open air, is assumed to have lost its injurious qualities, and is used in the place of butter. Those who desire to secure a veritable *bonne-bouche* leave shark's flesh to dry for several years, but even after that prolonged period there clings to it a strong smell, which renders it espe-

cially distasteful to foreigners. The so-called "clip"-fish is only a slightly-salted and dried cod, which constitutes the main food of the islanders ; and before every house-door may be seen the stone on which it receives the beating necessary to make it fit for eating. Whale's-meat is highly esteemed, and although Icelanders can scarcely be said to take any active part in the whale fishing, which is carried on near their coasts, they often have an opportunity of procuring one of these valuable monsters, which are driven on the coasts either through stress of weather, or in the attempt to escape from the pursuit of some whaling crew. The part eaten, and known as "rengi," is not the actual flesh, but an inner layer of a fatty substance resembling bacon and meat combined. A small whale, *Delphinus globiceps*, the "ca'ing whale" of seamen, which is not more than thirty or forty feet long, visits the shores in large shoals, whose appearance is signalled to the neighbouring districts by the lighting of bonfires ; while its capture is effected by boats, which drive it back into the open sea, where the animals are despatched with long knives.

According to the testimony of Icelandic whale-fishers, the true whale is diminishing rapidly in numbers ; and it is certain that the results

lately obtained by an enterprising American whaling firm, provided with the best apparatus, and following the most scientific methods, have not hitherto been commensurate with the expectations of success.

The flora of Iceland, which is nearly as limited as its fauna, might possibly be extended if the islanders would devote their attention to the better tillage, and judicious planting of the soil, for the sagas bear testimony to the existence, in earlier times, of not inconsiderable wood-land tracts, of which no trace is now left beyond stunted underwood. The few remaining beech-trees do not exceed sixteen or eighteen feet in height, while most of them are not half as high, and are found intermingled with dwarf-beech, birch, and willows, which spring up from a bed of moss, and various kinds of marsh-plants, many of which supply abundant crops of edible berries.

The flora also includes several gentians, saxifrages, and sedums, remarkable for the brilliancy of their colouring; and while the valleys in the north, which are the best wooded, exhibit the greatest variety of vegetation, plants advance in some parts of the coast-lands to the very snow-line, although it is only in the immediate vicinity of the hot-springs that they attain their full size.

In the almost total absence of true cereals, whose cultivation has either been wholly neglected, or very imperfectly conducted, a sand-grass, *Elymus arenarius*, is converted into a palatable kind of bread ; and this, and Hvönn, [Angelica,] Fjallagrös, the so-called Iceland moss (*Cetraria islandica*), and various other forms of lichens, mosses, and algæ, constitute important articles of food. The grass crops are abundant, and are cut and harvested from the middle of July to September, during which time the people flock inland from the coast-settlements to take part in the shearing of the hay harvest. Of late years the cultivation of potatoes and various root-crops has been carried on with constantly increasing success, and with great hygienic benefit, as the poorer classes had previously lived too exclusively on dried fish, seasoned with train-oil, or tallow. Even among the wealthier classes, good bread, like good butter, is a rarity ; the former being generally sour and wet, while the latter, owing to bad methods of preparing it, is neither palatable, nor wholesome. A substitute for good butter is, however, supplied by the national dish of "skyr," eaten with cream and sugar, and consisting of sheeps'-milk reduced to curds by the addition of rennet, in which condition it may be kept through the long winter.

In its minerals, Iceland possesses resources for

industrial activity, which, although possibly not as great as some travellers have asserted, could no doubt be made more available for the general benefit of the island. The sulphur-mines, although of enormous productiveness, are at present of little real value, from their inaccessibility. This objection especially applies to the mines at Krisuvik, in the south-west, which, although pronounced to be "promising" by Admiral Sir E. Commerell, who was sent by the English Government, in 1857, to report upon their character, are found to be too far from an accessible port to be worth working. Near the great lake of Myvatn large deposits of sulphur occur which from their comparative vicinity to the port of Husavik, would appear more capable of being worked with profit ; and it was here that the Danish king, Frederik II., father-in-law of James I. of England and VI. of Scotland, obtained such abundant supplies, that for several years 400 tons of this mineral were annually exported to Denmark to be used in the manufacture of gunpowder. Under Frederik's son and successor, Christian IV., the mines again fell into the hands of private owners, and in 1872, after having been left long unworked, they were leased by the Danish Government for fifty years to an English firm.

Excepting sulphur, Iceland cannot be said to

possess any of the more useful minerals. The absence of iron necessarily stands in the way of every form of industrial enterprise, and its use is almost restricted to such articles as horse-hoofs, nails, and spades ; ploughs, and other agricultural instruments, being either superfluous from the nature of the ground, or dispensed with for reasons of economy. In the lignite-beds, which underlie the trap and lava formations, it has been thought that Iceland might find the fuel necessary for working the few minerals which she possesses, as well as for domestic use. These beds, which consist for the most part of trees no longer indigenous, as tulip-trees, walnut, oak, alder, and several conifers, some of the trunks of which are upwards of fifty feet in length, occur near Husavik, in stretches of from 500 to 1000 feet in length, and about 25 feet in depth. And here, as at many other points, they would seem to offer a valuable supply of fuel, not to be neglected in a country which has to import coal, and to limit its consumption of this product to purposes of industry in smithies, and other workshops. The difficulties of transport, which can only be effected by means of horses, have, however, hitherto prevented the use of lignite—called by Icelanders *Surturbrandr*—and the islanders, generally, continue to prefer turf, which is abundant in most

districts, or, what is greatly to be regretted from an agricultural point of view, they consume as fuel dried animal manure, instead of leaving it to enrich the soil.

In their "*hraffinna*," they have a remarkably fine obsidian, which it would require only a very slight degree of enterprise to convert into a valuable article of export. The calcareous, so-called Iceland spar, of double refracting power, which forms the sole mineral export, occurs only on the east-coast, near the *Eskifjörðthr* and *Reydarfjörðthr*, where it is met with in a seam, fifty feet long and about twenty-five feet broad, running through the trap ; and here perfectly transparent pieces have been taken, weighing from 1 to 200 lbs., of which the museum at Copenhagen has a fine specimen, upwards of 160 lbs. in weight.

In a country where fire and frost rule supreme, agriculture is almost everywhere impossible. The scanty vegetation reaches its highest development in abundant grass crops, and these naturally, in the absence of cereals, form a most important item in rural economy, and on the greater or lesser success of the hay-harvest depends the wealth of the peasant, or priest proprietor, whose riches may be estimated in accordance with the number of sheep, cattle, and horses he can raise and support ; from 600 to 900

sheep representing exceptional wealth, and 100 sheep, 2 cows, and 12 horses, a fair competency. In round numbers, Iceland may be said to have about 400,000 sheep, 20,000 cattle, and 37,000 horses. The sheep are generally well grown, the cattle smaller than their Danish ancestors, and the horses small, strong, and capable of enduring much fatigue, and long periods of fasting. Of late years, from 800 to 1000 have been annually exported to Great Britain and Belgium, but it is a question whether their constantly increasing exportation may not be injurious to the islanders, who are dependent on these animals for means of locomotion, as well as for the transmission of goods.

The salting of salmon and meat has of late years become of great importance, 500 tons of the former, and 1000 tons of the latter, being annually exported. Together with these, train-oil, whalebone, sealskins and sheepskins, wool and feathers, constitute the principal exports, while the imports include not only all the colonial and manufactured goods required by the islanders, but such indispensables as bricks and deals, rope and fish-hooks, salt, iron, and coals, and last, but not least, tobacco and brandy, which are consumed in immense quantities; 472,000 pots of brandy, and 100,000 lbs. of tobacco, besides 235,000 cigars, being required annually to supply the wants of the island.

Since 1854, when their trade was declared free and thrown open to all nations, the Icelanders have begun to engage more actively in fishing, and in the coasting-trade, and of the 200 vessels entering their ports annually, about one-fourth belong to the island. Under the present improving condition of the island the revenue amounts to about 200,000, Kr., and the expenditure to about 188,000 Kr. The former includes a fixed annual subsidy of 60,000 Kr., paid by the Danish Government, in consideration of the benefit Denmark has derived from past monopolies of trade, and from the sale of public lands on the island. Denmark further bound itself in 1871 to make an extraordinary annual grant of 40,000 Kr. for ten years, after which period each annual payment was to be reduced 2000 Kr., until the entire absorption of the subsidy at the close of the century.

CHAPTER XIII.

Divisions of Iceland. Its constitution—The church, bishop, and clergy—Schools and libraries—Legal system : Court of justice ; chief offences—The language: Runic characters—Early literature: the forms of composition—Works on the language—Ancient literary remains—Laws—The Eddas—Recent productions and modern writers—Taste for science beginning to awake—The political press—The leading papers.

Iceland is administratively divided into so-called fjordungar, or fourth parts—the Sunnlendingafjordungur in the south, and the Vestfirðingafjordungur in the west, united since 1873, and the Nordlendingafjordungur in the north, and the Austfirðingafjordungur in the east, now similarly placed under one Amtmand. These circles, or “Amter,” are divided into twenty-two “sysler,” districts, with nineteen syssel-mænd, or magistrates, each syssel being subdivided into “hrappar,” rapes, under “hrappstjóri,” or sheriffs.

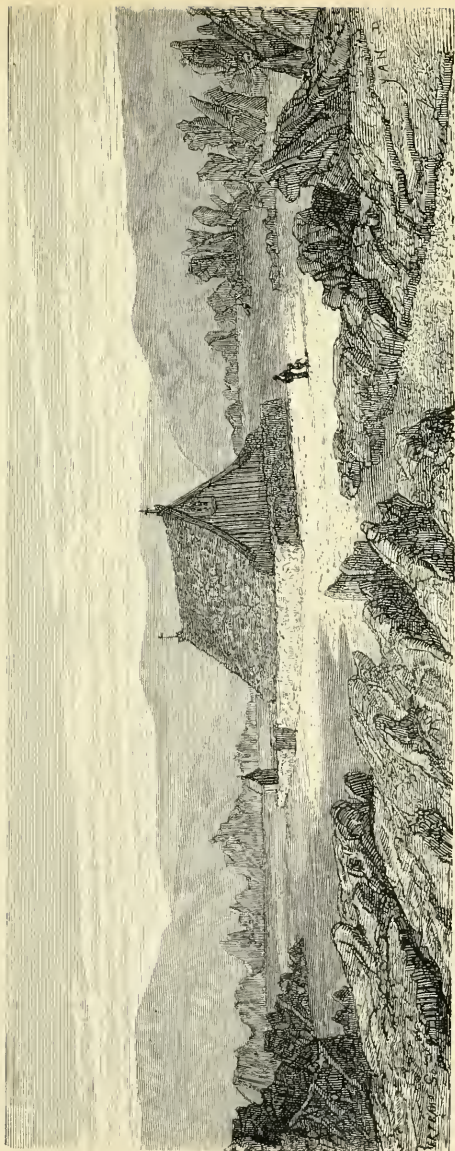
The island constitutes an inalienable part of the Danish monarchy, governed by the King of Denmark, with the co-operation of a legislative assembly on the island, known as the Althing, to which

powers have been granted by the constitution of 1874, which secure to it the right to make its own laws, and assure to the islanders a general independence, that virtually makes them free of the control of the home government, which has recently vested the management of all matters connected with Iceland in a special branch of the ministry. Apart from the machinery of the administration, which retains a local republican form, the island is subject to Danish regulations, and has the same coinage, and the same standards of measures, and weights as Denmark.

The Icelanders belong to the form of Lutheranism, adopted in Denmark, as the established national Church ; and the spiritual government of the island rests with one bishop, whose see is at Reykjavik, and who is under the supremacy of the bishop of Seeland, while the stiftsamtmænd of Reykjavik is associated with him in the administration of the secular affairs of the diocese. The clergy number 20 provosts and 196 pastors, although there are upwards of 300 churches, but many of these are situated in such scantily populated districts that two or three are often joined under one incumbent, who performs service alternately in each. The endowments of these livings, to which the bishop nominates, with the confirmation of the king, range

from 200 to 3000 Kroner, while the bishop receives about 7000 Kr. annually; and, owing to their poverty, the clergy differ socially but little from the bondar, or farmer class, from which the greater number have sprung. They are required to attend a two years' course of instruction in the theological seminary at Reykjavik after finishing their preliminary education, and some complete their studies at the University of Copenhagen, receiving ordination at the hands of the Danish primate. Owing, moreover, to the absence of country schools, which causes the education of children to be carried on within their own homes in the rural districts, the clergy, as the special representatives of learning, constitute the local educational inspectors and examiners, if not the actual teachers.

The poverty and patriarchal simplicity of the Icelanders are forcibly illustrated by the appearance and condition of the churches, and of the houses of the incumbents of parishes. Thus, while the former are little better than small barns, in some cases not more than twenty-five feet in length by fifteen feet in width, painted and tarred like ordinary dwellings, the latter are in many cases not superior, even in respect to cleanliness and ordinary conveniences, to the homes of the poorer farmers. The dilapidated condition of the churches is, however in part



AN ICELANDIC CHURCH.

due to the fact that in the absence of any available funds for the purpose, the incumbents are assumed to be responsible for the cost of repairing and even rebuilding these structures when necessary, although the majority of the clergy are forced to work like the peasants around them, and are, generally, so poor as to make this obligation a dead-letter.

The chief schools on the island are in the capital, Reykjavik, where the national college, with its associated schools of divinity, law, and medicine, has 24 professors, with five classes, to the highest of which a few scholarships are attached. It possesses a library of 9000 volumes; is presided over by a resident master; has 150 students; and can accommodate about forty boarders, who enter between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years, and may continue their studies till the age of twenty-three, when they may graduate in theology, law, or physic.

Reykjavik has also a female seminary and a normal training-school, that seem to be doing good service in improving the methods of teaching, which have hitherto been extremely defective. The Stifðisbókasafn, or public library, numbering nearly 30,000 volumes, which is to be placed in the new Althing House, now building, is a most valuable addition to the literary possessions of the Icelanders,

who, moreover, derive great benefit from the "Islenzska Bókmentafjelag," a society, founded in 1816, by the Danish philologer, Rasmus Rask, whose object is to print and circulate, at a moderate cost, books illustrating the history and literature of Iceland, and to publish reports of the progress of knowledge in other countries.

The legal system of Iceland is identical with that of Denmark, excepting in regard to some enactments concerning the tenure of land, in which the old codes of the 13th century are followed. A Chief Justice, assisted by two assessors, presides over the Supreme Court, which sits at Reykjavik. This court is competent to decide on appeals from the lesser courts, and its judgments are final. A sentence of death, however, requires the confirmation of the king before it can be carried into effect, and sometimes even it is found necessary to convey the condemned to Denmark, from the difficulty of inducing an Icclander to play the part of executioner. Great crimes are almost unknown, and till the recent erection of a jail at Reykjavik, no public prison existed. Petty thieving and vagrancy, usually referable to drunkenness, are, however, not unfrequent, but these offences can be dealt with by the local "hrapars," who are bound to see the legally awarded sentences carried out.

For German and English students of their mother-tongue, Icelandic has special interest, as the most perfect survival of the Old Gothic, while for Scandinavians, it has the additional attraction of being the actual language spoken by their forefathers a thousand years ago, when the earliest settlers of Iceland left their homes to escape from the strong rule of Harald Harfágr, the first sole king of Norway. At that period, and for centuries later, the three Scandinavian peoples spoke one common tongue, the *Dansk Tunga*, or *Norrœna*, which has been preserved almost intact by their descendants in the present speech of Iceland. The independent chieftains, who exchanged the monarchical government of their native country for a free republic—in which each leader was king and priest on his own lands, and all freemen ranked as equals—clung tenaciously to the language and usages of their motherland: each free yeoman or franklin living in his own farm with his household. The first century after the settlement was the heroic age of Iceland, and gave subjects for the epic tales called Sagas. When, on the introduction of Christianity, through English-taught missionaries from Norway, in the year 1000, they became acquainted with the Latin characters, the first use they made of this novel art of writing was to give written permanence

to the rich stores of northern legend and history, which they had preserved by tradition. The Old Northern thus early acquired a fixed classical authority in Iceland, which it never attained in Scandinavia, but which was the more readily maintained through the first Christian ages, owing to the preponderance of native Icelanders in the Icelandic church, which was too poor, and too remote from Rome, to be exposed to any strong romanizing influences. And thus at a time when in other countries Latin was the only written language, Icelandic chiefs were helping to perpetuate an independent national literature in regions far removed from the place of its origin. Yet it must not be supposed that the more cultivated art of writing in Latin characters entirely superseded the use of runes, which were but adaptations of an old Greek alphabet fitted in form for carving on wood, for long after the introduction of Christianity these ancient forms were employed on monumental and memorial stones in churches and churchyards, while, among the superstitious, they were even used as charms on rings and amulets. We thus find their old character of mystery and sanctity clinging to them long after the faith with which they had originally been associated had vanished.

The classical period of the Old Northern belongs

to the 12th and 13th centuries, while the few verbal forms that had become nearly obsolete before that age, and those which have been introduced since, rank alike as departures from the authorized standards. Some of the more modern innovations, which are for the most part due to the less exact scholarship of the reformed clergy, have not, however, as might be assumed, been always borrowed from the less correct speech that had sprung up in the course of time in Scandinavia. Thus, for instance, in the pronunciation of *y*, Icelanders no longer retain the original sound of that letter, which is still preserved by their Scandinavian brethren, but confound it with simple *i*.

The copiousness of the Old Northern nearly rivals that of Arabic, more than fifty compounds being applicable to a ship, while nearly as many could be made to designate a sword, a woman, &c. This love of synonyme and power of composition were developed in poetic expression, for from an early period we find that poetry was cultivated with greater care and success than prose. The ancient Skaldic art was regulated by strict rules. Alliteration and *stress* laid on the more important words in the line, formed the prominent characteristics of Old Northern poetry. Line-rhyme, and terminal-rhyme, known as "Hending," were

both used ; but in regard to the latter it must be observed, that before the Reformation, no case occurs in which any but consecutive lines are rhyming. The old poets distinguished their compositions as *Liod* and *Kvidha* (Epic Lays and Speeches), *Mal* (Dialogue); the court-poets later wrote *Drapas* (Encomia), and the later mediæval makers *Rimur* (ballads). The first class, which includes all the poems of the 'Edda' Collection, required alliteration, stress and quantity, while the second demanded a fixed number of syllables, alliteration and assonance, and the third added terminal rhyme and refrain.

It may be here observed, that for the study of Icelandic great help will be derived from the grammar of R. Rask, in which we have the first attempt ever made to reduce the language to scientific principles. In addition to this, the Oxford "Icelandic Prose Reader," Fritzner's "Lexicon," Egilsson's "Lexicon Poeticum," and the Icelandic-English Dictionary of Cleasby and Vigfusson, will be found to afford invaluable aid to the student of Old Northern.

Apart from the value and importance of Old Icelandic for the elucidation of all modern Teutonic languages, it has the especial attraction of possessing a richly varied and highly cultivated literature,

for which we are indebted to the learning and patriotism of such Icelanders as Thorodd the Grammarian, Ari the Historian, Gizur Hallsson and Sæmund the Wise of Oddi, who had studied abroad, probably in Paris, and seems to have founded a school of Latin chroniclers in Iceland. By these men the history and popular traditions of the island were transcribed and annotated with a care and erudition, that no other scholars of the early middle ages have expended on the national and literary productions of their own country. The desire of regulating the affairs of their republic by the usages of the motherland led the Icelanders, in the 10th century, to send one of their ablest men, Ulfjot, to Norway, to study the legal system of their Norse brethren. After three years he returned and drew up a Constitution. Ulfjots' Laws were written down in 1116, after having probably been preserved on separate scrolls. They are known to us in their revised forms as the Grágás Code, the Jarnsida (1271), and the Jonsbok (1280), and in some particulars are still valid. These and the old canon laws for Iceland have been carefully annotated by various Danish and Icelandic scholars, as by Thorkelin, in the last century, and in recent times by the patriot and statesman Jon Sigurdsson, Konrad Maurer, and W. Finsen.

The noblest relic of Old Northern historical literature is the *Konungabók* of Snorre Sturlasson, a learned and ambitious chieftain of his age, who gives, in vigorous language, a flowing narrative of the history of the North from the first settlement of Norway, under the race of the Ynglings, till the beginning of the 13th century, to which he belonged. This work, which is best known from its abridgment the *Heimskringla*, forms, with the great *Islendinga Saga* of Sturla, the *Islendingabók* and the *Landnámabók*, the most perfect compendium of early national history possessed by any people. The two last-named works are by Priest Are Frode, or the Wise, a descendant of the royal Yngling race. After his death (in 1148) various churchmen and lawyers wrote historical works both in Latin and Icelandic, down to the middle of the 14th century. In the *Landnámabók* are recorded the names and histories of all who had taken lands in Iceland, with genealogical tables of the Norwegian chiefs from whom they were descended. Next in importance to these stand the numerous sagas. Some on the King's lives, as the *Knytlinga Saga*, which treats of Danish history down to Knud VI. (1186), and *Hakon-Hakonssons Saga*, by Snorre's nephew

Sturla Thordason, are purely historical, while a still greater number are Epic Tales of Icelandic life, in which facts and romance are inextricably blended together. These compositions are, however, highly important from the light which they throw on the public history and private lives of the people, at a time when the island was becoming rapidly disorganized amid the irreconcilable feuds of rival chieftains. Of these records of Icelandic "vendetta," the most important are the *Njals*, *Egils*, *Eyrbyggja*, *Grettis*, and *Laxdæla* sagas, all of which have found appreciative readers in foreign, as well as Scandinavian countries.

In the province of Old Northern poetry and mythic stories, the Eddas stand foremost. The poetic, or so-called Elder Edda, is a collection of old epic poems written down in the 13th century. The prose, or Younger Edda, is by Snorre Sturlason, who was murdered in 1241. In the poems of the first, and the mythic tales of the second of these interesting compilations, we have not only a complete exposition of the long demolished system of ancient Odinic mythology, recorded in harmonious verse and highly cultivated prose, but a rich treasure of national lore, which yields invaluable aid towards the elucidation of the earliest

history and condition of the Northern peoples. To the Icelandic sagas and biographies succeeded an abundant crop of mediæval tales, adapted from French romances of the age of chivalry, and of romantic and religious poetry similarly borrowed from foreign originals. In recent times, Iceland has found subtle critics, and trustworthy expounders of her ancient and later literature, in such men as Rask, Munch, Keyser, Egilsson, Bugge, &c., while to Jon Sigurdsson, Vigfusson and Unger it owes some of the best editions extant of the sagas. Poetry has likewise found successful cultivators in modern times, among whom we may instance Jon Thorodsson, the author of "*Piltur og Stúlka*," a poetic tale whose aim was to bring ridicule on the old Danish trade system; Páll Sigurdsson, whose merit lies in the vividness of his descriptions of local scenery and usages; S. Thorsteinsson, professor of Greek in the Reykjavik college, who has made admirable translations from Kalidása, Shakespeare, and the Arabian Nights' Tales, and has edited a number of Icelandic ballads; Matthias Jochumsson, the most prolific of living Icelandic poets, who besides translations of Hamlet, Macbeth, &c., has published a great number of songs, lyrics, and original pieces; the brothers Jon and Páll Olafsson, the former of

whom has translated the tales of Björnstjerna Björnsson, while both have recently published numerous national lyrics, &c. Sacred poetry, like theology, has ceased to hold the prominent place it once did in Icelandic literary composition, but at the present time the revision of the national Psalm Book is under the consideration of a commission of poets and pastors. The few recent contributions to history and archæology that have appeared are chiefly due to a Literary Society, known as the Bókmentafjelag, which among other important series, is publishing a complete Icelandic Diplomatarium ; a treatise on the ancient Althing at Thingvellir ; the Lives of the Catholic Bishops of Iceland ; a Summary of current events, &c. That Icelanders are still maintaining their old character for erudition abroad, as well as at home, our own universities can fully testify, where such men as Vigfússon, Magnússon and others ably uphold the national reputation for exact scholarship. Local Icelandic literature continues, however, to be largely engrossed by the consideration of the political relations, past and present of the country which constitute paramount objects of interest to the whole community. In Olavius, Olafsson, the Stephensens, and Thorsteinsson, Iceland has found able exponents of its economic and

statistical data, while to the mathematician, Björn Gunnlaugsson, it is indebted for much valuable information in regard to local topography, and for the only good map of the island extant. It is much to be regretted, that Icelanders, with few exceptions, as that of Thorodsson, who has written an able work on the great volcanic eruption of Iceland in 1783, have not hitherto shown any inclination towards the study of the great natural phenomena surrounding them.

A praiseworthy attempt to awaken an interest in scientific research is, however, now being made by the translation and publication of a series of science primers, of which Roscoe's Chemistry and Geikie's Physical Geography have already appeared. Several scientific periodicals have also sprung up, among which special attention is due to the "*Heilbrigdistidindi*," or Journal of Health, edited by the learned physiologist, J. J. Hjaltalin; and it may be fairly said that the Icelanders have of late years shown a constantly increasing interest in practical science, of which proof is afforded by the recent establishment of a technical school at Möðruvellir. The political press of Iceland still continues to display very violent party feeling, which finds expression in five weekly papers, issued from the five presses which the island now





possesses. The two leading weeklies, the *Thiodulfur* and the *Isafold*, which appear at Reykiavik, are respectively edited by two poets, M. Jochumsson and G. Thomsen, the latter of whom is a noted parliamentary leader. Of the remaining papers, the *Nordanfari* and the *Nordlingur* are issued at Akureyri, while the *Skuld*, which is only recently established, comes out at Eskifjörður on the east-coast ; all, however, are liable to temporary suspension for lack of materials, during every alternate winter when the Althing is not sitting.

Reykjavik, the capital, is the most ancient settlement in Iceland, for it was here that Hjörleifr and Ingólfr, the earliest permanent settlers, first landed in 874, after their long and stormy voyage. In accordance with a not uncommon Northern practice, they had made a vow before leaving Norway, that they would be guided in their choice of a place of settlement by the direction taken by the consecrated pillars of the "high-seat," which they had brought with them. In conformity with this resolution, they threw these much honoured objects overboard as soon as they caught sight of land, and having, after a prolonged search, recovered them on the south-west shore of Great Faxa fjord, they settled there, with their families, followers, cattle, and slaves.

Reykjavik has never ceased to be the chief centre

of industrial activity on the island, and of late years it has made decided advances in respect to appearance and condition, although it has no pretensions to beauty, or local advantages of any kind. Its mixed Icelandic and Danish population of about 2000 is occupied in trade and fishing, the Danes standing at the head of the chief trading houses, and filling one or two public offices; while the Icelanders, generally, retain in their own hands the management of their schools and church, and the control of the press and of their local municipal affairs. The representative of the Danish Government has the rank of *Stiftamtmand* at Reykjavik, and here the *Althing*, or representative assembly, holds its meetings. This chamber, which consists of thirty-six members, six of whom are nominated by the king, has a biennial session of six or eight weeks, and conducts its discussions in Icelandic. Pending the completion of a special hall of assembly, it holds its meetings in the school-house, which, with the cathedral-church, constitutes the only public building in the town. Excepting the residences of the Danish representative and of the bishop, which are good-sized, many-windowed, and bright-looking, the houses are small, tarred, or darkly painted, wooden or turf tenements, while the six or seven streets of which the place consists,

present neither trees nor flowers, although most of the detached houses have plots of uncultivated ground in front of their doors. Reykjavik derives its name from *reykr*, smoke, or reek, in reference to the numerous hot-springs near it, as at Reykholt, which serve as the public baths and laundries of the townspeople. The town is a good centre from which to visit some of the most interesting of the volcanic foci of the island, while its vicinity to the Esjafjæld, from which the great Jökull of the Snæfell district may be well seen, affords the traveller, who makes Reykjavik his headquarters, an opportunity of observing some of the grandest phenomena of glacial action. From hence, too, the site of the ancient Althing plain, on the Thingvallavatn, the largest lake in Iceland, may be easily reached ; and this spot is alike interesting from its historical associations, and its striking geological character, for here, in the vast Skjaldsbreidhr lava beds, lies Almannagjá, a ravine seventy miles in length, skirted by massive lava walls, beside which the people lay encamped, who came year after year to attend the Althing, which held its meetings on a little island in the river Oxará. It was here that, in the year 1000, the chieftains met to decide whether to accept, or reject Christianity, and here, for 800 years, every great event connected with the

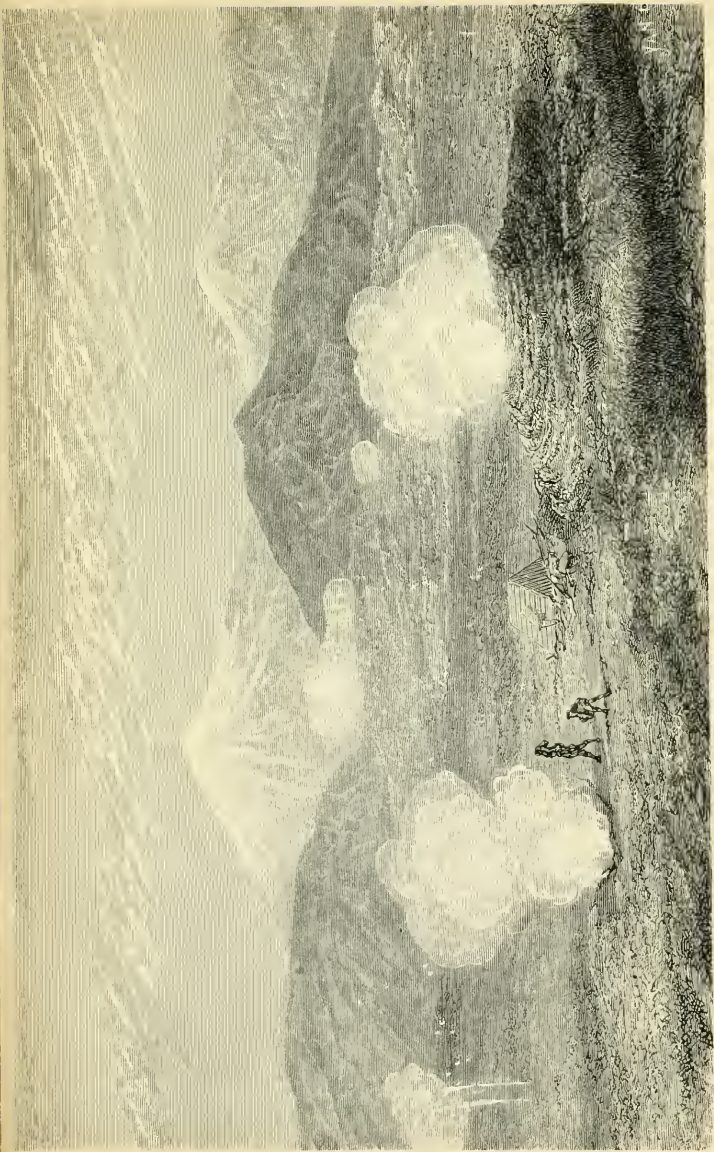
history of the people was discussed, till the temporary dissolution of the Althing, in the year 1800 ; and here, on every side, are memorials of the primitive state of society when the National Assembly itself administered the laws it had framed. West of the Oxará stood the Lögberg, or "Rock of Law," a hillock on the long detached wall of lava, which forms the east rim of the Great Rift. Thence the law-expounders proclaimed the sentences passed by the Althing. The site now shown to the traveller as the Law-Hill, was the place on which some of the most famous Icelandic chiefs used to camp while the Althing was sitting. In the midst of this chaotic mass of intersecting ravines, rent and jagged rocks, and deep lava beds, a special feature of interest is derived from the presence of various trap formations, which here and there lead, like a series of steps, to the bed of the ravine, whose sides are covered with a thick growth of coarse grass, contrasting strongly with the dark walls towering above.

To the east of the Thingvallir district, between the Langafell and the river Hvitá (known as the Olfusá further south, where a bridge is being carried across the stream), lie the celebrated hot-springs, of which Great Geysir, once counted among the seven wonders of the world, is the most important. The

name, derived from *geysa*, to rise with force, is common to all spouting hot-springs, although usually understood by foreigners to be an individual designation. Great Geysir, which lies in a centre of active volcanic energy, surrounded by twenty-five to thirty lesser spouting springs, consists of a low flat elevation of palagonite tufa, margined round by ash, scoriæ, and deposits of silica. This Geysir basin is about 70 feet across and 40 feet deep, with a central shaft 70 feet deep, from which columns of water and steam rise to a height of 150 feet, at irregular intervals, varying from hours to weeks, each eruption being preceded by prolonged sounds of subterraneous thunder. When the spring is quiescent the water, which fills the basin to its brim, is below the boiling point owing to the rapid cooling of the extended surface, while in the "Strokr" springs, on the contrary, which derive their name from their resemblance to a butter-churn, the water is always in a state of ebullition. Here the rim of the basin is even with the ground, while the funnel, which is seven feet in diameter at its mouth, is contracted to less than a foot at the depth of forty feet below the surface—the furthest point that can be reached by the lead—and hence the exposed surface of the water is too limited to allow of the cooling to which the Geysir is exposed. Great

Strokkur, which lies near Great Geysir, is more irregular than the latter in its eruptions, and its waters have not the same clearness, although the jets are as high, and are sometimes ejected with startling rapidity, and with scarcely any intermission for hours at a time. From the descriptions of older travellers it is manifest that the present Geysir and Strokkur are not the same which were seen by them, and it has been ascertained that the so-called "green-blue Geysir" ceased to spout when the Great Strokkur began its eruptions, whence it must be assumed that the volcanic foci change in position, or undergo a diminution of activity.

Between the region of the Geysirs and Hekla flow the three large rivers, the Hvítá, Laxá, and Thjorsá, separated by grass plains, which form a thin covering over the old lava beds. East of the Thjorsá rise the five longitudinal palagonite ridges (2000 feet above the level of the sea), which form this mountain system, and on the central one of which Hekla raises its rugged sides to a height of nearly 5000 feet. South of these elevations, and extending towards the great Jökulls, near Portland, stretches a cultivated habitable plain, but north of them the land is an uninhabited desert, unexplored and untrodden save by the peasants whose cattle feed on the grass which springs up in the



GEYSIRS.

furrows of the lava beds. The latest (27th) eruption of Hekla took place in 1878, about four miles from the craters of the great eruption of 1845, and the depth of the largest crater is now about 150 feet, with a diameter of 100 feet. From hence lava and steam have been copiously poured out, while the whole field of new lava, which in all respects resembles the older lava, is speckled over with upheaved mounds resembling craters. The most striking feature in the last eruption was the great quantities of hydrochloric acid produced, and the excessive amount of the sublimation of the iron chlorides. The lavas of 1845 contain 56 per cent., of silica, and nearly 30 per cent. of alumina, the other constituents being lime, magnesia, potash, and soda, and these lavas appear to be almost identical with those erupted in 1878. The Icelandic lava formations, which are trachytic, are of rare occurrence on the east and north of the island, and in the north-west peninsula they are only represented by the *hverir*, or hot springs. Next to Hekla in regard to frequency of eruptions comes Katla in the Kötlugja range, with its thirteen, or, according to some, its sixteen outbreaks, the first of which occurred in 874, the year of the colonization of Iceland, and all of which have been marked by the specially disastrous outpouring of enormous streams of snow

and ice-laden waters, although no lava has been ejected from this volcano. The crater is situated in a rocky chasm in the midst of a vast snowfield, to the north-east of the Myrdals and Eyjafjalla Jökulls, the latter of which is more than 5500 feet above the level of the sea, and therefore 1500 feet above the snow-line. Owing to its vicinity to the cultivated and inhabited districts of south Iceland, the eruptions of this volcano, more especially that of 1755, which occurred contemporaneously with the Lisbon earthquake, and that of 1823, have proved more fatal to property and life than any others, vast tracts of land having been repeatedly rendered barren, while pestilence and famine have followed closely upon each of these volcanic outbreaks.

The south-west of the island includes with few exceptions the principal volcanic centres, while even the great Leirhnúkr system near the Myvatn lake, to which Krafla belongs, also follows this direction. The more important of the rivers and fjælds appear similarly to follow a southern direction, and in the great Vatna, or Klofa Jökull system, which covers 150 square geographical miles of south-eastern Iceland, and at whose southern limits lie the Öräfa and the Breidamerkr Jökulls, the former of which is 6000 feet above the level of the sea, we find an important centre of volcanic

activity. And the occurrence here at intervals of eight or ten years of the so-called Jökull-runs, or streams of ice and snow-water, carrying with them rounded boulders, is ascribed to the action of fumaroles, or other volcanic outlets below the glaciers. These streams, which are sometimes twelve miles wide, have converted enormous areas of land into sandy deserts. Thus, near the great Myvatn, or Gnat-Lake, famed for its salmon trout, and for the water-fowl, which thrive on the fish as the latter do on the gnats, is the far-spreading waste of the Odáda Hraun, which owes its desolation to this cause, and which has now no occupants but the wild reindeer, which, since the introduction of these animals in 1770, have retreated to the more deserted regions.

South-west of the Odáda Hraun, and east of the Vatna Jökull, lies the vast and now inactive volcanic centre of the Skaptárfellshraun, whose present desolation dates from the great eruption of 1782-83, the most destructive ever experienced in Iceland, when two stupendous lava streams were poured forth with irresistible force from craters at the foot of the Skaptar Jökull. One of these glowing currents, 600 feet in depth and 200 feet in width, cuts its destructive way through the valley of the Skapta river, whose waters it dried up, carry-

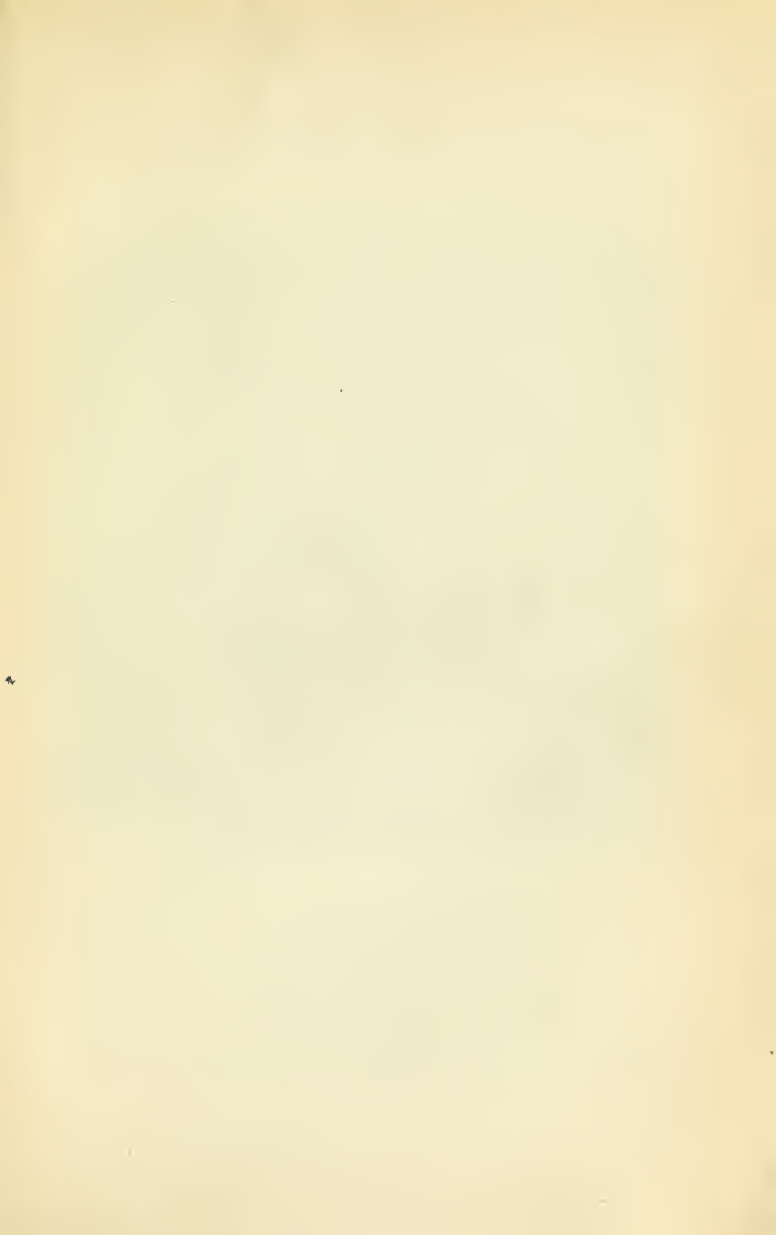
ing with it huge cliffs and shattered rocks on the crests of its molten waves, while the other overflowed the banks of the Hverfisfljot. This vast desert fjæld, with its interminable lava beds, still testifies to the destructive agencies of the eruption of 1782-83, and of far earlier eruptions, which between the Skapta and the sea have left in the place of previously cultivated lands long lines of ash and scorixæ mounds, from twenty to thirty feet high, of which from 2000 to 3000 may still be traced.

While this district is perhaps better adapted than any other to show the direct effects of lava eruptions, the neighbourhood of Reykjavik presents in the undulating and striated appearance of the lava formations near Thingvallavatn and Hafnarfjördr, striking evidences of the process of denudation to which these ancient volcanic deposits have been subjected through the action of the jökulls, which have flowed over them. To glaciers we may further refer the formation of the numerous deep and long fjords with which the south and south-west coasts are indented, and probably also the narrow valleys, of which the former are merely the prolongations. Near Reykjavik, too, may be seen striking examples of striation, both on detached boulders and on the low hills and fjælds, although the best marked of these phenomena

occur in the north-west, between the Mælifjæl and the Blandá. Instances of "roches moutonnées," which owe their rounded forms to a similar cause, are on the other hand of most frequent occurrence on the eastern coasts, as on the Reydarfjörðr south-east of this district. In the Skaptarfells-sýssel, the Svinafells Jökull, from its peculiar position near an extended plain, presents one of the most favourable opportunities for studying glacier phenomena, since nowhere in Iceland can the mode of formation of a moraine, and the action of the jökull current, be better observed.

Besides Reykjavík, Iceland has a few small trading-stations along the coasts, which for a short time in summer are animated by the presence of the neighbouring bondar, or farmers, who come with their wool and other produce to pay for their previous year's account with the traders. Among these little spots, Hafnafjörð and Eyrarbakki in the south-west are the most busy. Near the latter, on the great Skaldholt plain, lies Oddi, still revered as the habitation of Sæmundr Froði, or the Wise, and his grandson, Jón Loptsson, the stepfather of Snorre Sturlason. At Husavík, in the north, an excellent harbour is beginning to develop considerable industrial activity among the fishing population, who pursue seal-hunting with much

success, while near this port, and parallel with the bold sea-cliffs, are vast beds of lignite, "Surturbrand," which may, it is to be hoped, be made available as a source of fuel. South east of Husavik lies the now inactive volcanic Krafla fjæld, with its Hrafninnuhryggr, or "Obsidian ridge," and its so-called dry and wet sulphur springs, while south of Myvatn are the so-called Fremrinámar springs, from which the largest quantities of sulphur have been obtained. These springs lie on the side of a crater 2000 feet across and 250 feet deep—the largest on the island, and the centre of a stupendous range of volcanic fjæld, more than 5000 feet in height. Akureyri, which ranks next to Reykjavik in trading activity (shark-liver oil and ponies, yielding good returns as exports), lies on the north coast, on the Eyjafjord, and although an unpretending little port, deserves notice for its exceptional possession of a few well-grown mountain ashes, which are the vegetable wonders of Iceland, and the envy of all other settlements. From this district a road, known as Sprengissand, leads across an elevated plateau to the south-west of the island, which may be followed with tolerable ease, although, like the only other track that connects the north with the south country, it traverses a portion of a rugged lava desert. Travellers in





ICELANDIC COSTUMES.

Iceland have, however, other if not greater difficulties than dreary wastes to encounter, for in the absence of bridges, the numerous broad and turbulent rivers have to be forded under constant risk to riders, horses, and baggage ; while in the exceptional cases in which ferries are available, inconvenience and delay attend the unloading and reloading of the horses, which are either tied to the boat, or left to swim across as best they may. The want of inns, of which there are only one or two in the chief trading-ports, compels the traveller who carries no tent to seek night-quarters in the scattered houses of the peasants and priests, where the most ordinary requisites of civilized life are often wanting ; although a few of the wealthier landowners and best endowed among the clergy occupy comfortable houses, capable of satisfying all reasonable demands. Except in the few trading-places, Icelandic habitations, of which there were at the last land-survey 9400, lie detached on farms, *jórd*, which are often of great extent, and usually consist of a *tun*, or piece of home land, on which the hay crops required for the domestic cattle are grown, and of a wild tract lying not unfrequently in an uninhabitable district, where the horses and sheep are left to seek their scanty fodder. On the *tun* stands the dwelling (*Bær*) of

the proprietor, which in its ordinary typical form consists of a series of one-storeyed, one-roomed, wooden or earth tenements, the middle one of which usually constitutes the habitation of the entire family, while the others respectively serve as guest-chamber, kitchen, store-house, &c., and are all connected by means of a low, dark, often floorless passage. The rarity of chimneys, or other means of ventilation, contributes largely to the unhealthiness of these dwellings, whose occupants labour under the additional evils, that water is difficult of access, and that salted meat, dried fish and rice constitute their chief food, while coffee and brandy are the luxuries best liked, and most easily procured.

The evil conditions of a Bær are made apparent in the high death-rate, especially for children; and while adults, including the animal population, suffer greatly from various cutaneous and other affections due to parasites and entozoa, phthisis, gout, and rheumatism are very prevalent. The extreme scarcity of fuel, to which must be ascribed the objectionable herding together of an Icelandic household, is somewhat mitigated by the use of warm clothing, which among the wealthier women, who adhere to their national costume, is costly, and even elegant, with its silver embroideries and tasselled and furred trimmings.



ICELANDIC COSTUMES.

Throughout all its historic existence Iceland has been sorely plagued by famine and pestilence among men and beasts, 135 of such visitations being recorded. These calamities reached their climax in the 18th century, when 18,000 of the 50,000 inhabitants, and half the sheep, perished of hunger in one year, while scarcely two years passed without the recurrence of some destructive eruption or earthquake; and so great was the misery of the people, that the Danish Government, in 1786, considered the question whether the entire population should not be removed from the island, and transferred to some less afflicted spot. A temporary relaxation of the severe monopoly system was, however, happily the means of averting the threatened exodus, for with greater freedom of trade a rapid improvement in the condition of the people followed. And this result has not unnaturally, perhaps, led Icelanders to refer various forms of national depression to this cause, which dates back to the time when (in 1262) Iceland, after being nearly dismembered by the civil factions of its chieftains, renounced the free Republican Government, which it had maintained for nearly 400 years, and placed itself under the protection of the Norwegian king, exacting, amongst other obligations, that the latter should send at least six

ships annually to the island, with meal, and other supplies. When, a century later, Norway was united with Denmark, the Danish kings accepted this obligation, which in course of time was interpreted as an acknowledgment that the trade with Iceland rested in the hands of the reigning monarchs, who accordingly leased, or sold, it at their will. The evils of this system pressed more or less onerously on Iceland till the abrogation of all trade monopolies in 1854, since which time the islanders have gradually attained a degree of civil and national independence in respect to the administration of their own affairs, which it would not be easy to exceed as long as any relations of dependence are to be maintained on their part towards their Danish foster-parent. And it is satisfactory to note that in recent years the terms in which its association with Denmark was recognized, rather than the conditions of the national union, have formed the main causes of whatever political dissatisfaction may have found expression among Icelanders. The official recognition by the Danes of Iceland as a "*By-land*," or associated land, which is not to be regarded as a colony, nor as an integral part of Denmark Proper, would, however, seem to leave no further ground for complaint. The sensitiveness of Icelanders as to everything that touches

on their national integrity, is explained by the circumstances of their past history, and their former relations to Denmark. All respect is, moreover, due to the self-restraint and good sense with which the people have invariably abstained from any attempt to enforce by violence their demands for the legislative independence which they now enjoy ; and, indeed, so great is their respect for law and order, that the entire administrative machinery of the island has long been worked by two or three officials, without the aid of soldiers or police, and, until lately, without even the one solitary jail which now exists. Hitherto the *Sysselmaend*, or rural justices, have been found competent to deal single-handed with the few infringements of the laws that occurred, and to enforce the payment of the fines, or the performance of the compulsory labour which have met the requirements of most cases of misdemeanour.

A society like that of Iceland finds no parallel in any other country, for here rigid republican simplicity is combined with conservative pride of descent, great self-respect with perfect equality, and a complete absence of distinctions of rank and class with a constant observance of certain conventional forms of deference. Here, in a community that has stood isolated from the rest of the world,

each successive age has produced learned men, who may rank among the foremost of European scholars; while the people at large have transmitted to their children, generation after generation,—with a strong love of their country,—a knowledge of its history, and an interest in the rich treasure of national literature, which has been carefully preserved through all the varied phases of their political existence. Amongst a people like this, therefore, in whom long ages of culture have alike fostered national pride and self-respect, it only needs a slight modification of the strongly conservative spirit by which Icelanders are animated, to remove the few obstacles that have hitherto stood in the way of their social improvement, and to raise them to the rank of the most highly civilized nations of Europe.

APPENDIX.



I. SKETCH OF DANISH HISTORY.

822—1048.—Christianity was first preached in South Jutland, which like the rest of the lands of the Danes was governed by numerous chieftains, the so-called “Small Kings.” In the middle of the ninth century one of these petty pagan rulers, subsequently known in history as Gorm the Old, subdued his brother chieftains and founded an independent monarchy of Denmark. His son, Harald Blatand (Bluetooth), professed Christianity; but Svend Tveskæg (the Sweyn Cleftbeard of English history), the son and successor of Harald, continued to follow the faith of his ancestors, and in his eagerness to conquer England, took little heed of his Danish possessions. Under the rule of Svend’s second son, Knud (Canute the Great), who succeeded to the Danish throne on the death of his elder brother, Harald, in 1018, Denmark for the first time was brought under the influence of civilizing institutions. Churches and religious houses were founded; law and order were better enforced; and foreign artisans were brought into the country to teach the Danes various forms of industry with which Knud had become familiarized in England. Under Knud’s successors, Hardeknud, and Magnus the Good of Norway, this progress was arrested, and during constant wars with the neighbouring lands the former savage and lawless nature of the people reasserted itself.

1048—1157.—With Svend Estridsen, son of the powerful Jarl Ulf of Norway, and of Canute the Great’s sister, Estrid, a new era began. Svend, who was infirm in body, and bore the character of being pusillanimous, was proficient in the learning of his times, and chose his friends and counsellors among the clergy, through whose influence the Church gained permanent ascendancy over the

old Odinic faith. This king, who was founder of a dynasty that endured for 400 years, was succeeded by five of his numerous sons. Knud IV., the second of these king-brothers, an ambitious and warlike prince, reaped the honour of martyrdom, being slain in 1086, before the altar at which he had taken refuge from the pursuit of a party of insurgents, who resented the favour he showed the clergy, and the tyranny with which he levied heavy taxes to support his costly expeditions against the Wends. In 1101, in the reign of his brother Erik Ejagod, Knud was canonized and proclaimed patron saint of Denmark. In the reign of Svend's youngest son, Niels, the Danish Church was brought under stricter discipline, and the clergy forced to repudiate their wives and accept the obligation of celibacy. The formation of guilds, both lay and ecclesiastic, laid the foundation of the civic associations from which the burgher class was gradually developed. The closing part of this reign, and the interval between the death of Niels in 1134, and the accession of Valdemar the Great in 1157, were marked by sanguinary civil wars, carried on between the partisans of various princes of the Estridsen house.

1157—1241.—Valdemar I. (the Great), a grandson of king Erik Ejagod, and a son of Knud Lavard, Duke of Slesvig, who had been murdered by order of his uncle Niels, succeeded, with the support of the clergy, in vanquishing all his rivals, and securing the homage of the people. Valdemar, in conjunction with his friend Bishop Absalon, a member of the noble family Hvide, made seventeen campaigns against the pagan tribes on the south of the Baltic, whom he subjugated and forced to accept Christianity, while he cleared the northern seas of the Wendish pirates who had long harrassed the Danish coasts. Valdemar's son and successor, Knud VI., extended these Wendish conquests and assumed the title of "King of the Slaves;" and under him, by the help of his warlike brother Valdemar, Denmark made great conquests in north Germany, and for a time ruled as mistress over all the lands on the south and east of the Baltic. The primate Absalon continued to guide the State, and under him Seeland and Skåne (the Danish province east of the Sound) received canon laws; Cistercian and other monasteries were founded; while the clergy assumed the right to elect to the throne, with total disregard of the claims of the peasants or small free landholders to participate in the election, and with scanty deference for

the ancient prerogatives of the nobles. The first half of the reign of Knud's brother and successor Valdemar II., Sejr (the victor) was an almost unbroken period of conquest and prosperity. Valdemar was invested by the Emperor Frederick with Holstein, Lauenburg, Schwerin, and other north German provinces which he had conquered, while the Pope granted him supremacy over all heathen lands that he might subdue. Through the rising influence of the Dominicans, the ecclesiastical laws were enforced against the increased laxity of the lives of the clergy. In 1223, Valdemar and his eldest son, and elected successor, were surprised by Count Henry of Schwerin, while hunting on the uninhabited islet Lyö near Fyen, and carried captive to Germany by their vindictive vassal, who kept them three years in close confinement. Their release was bought with a heavy ransom. In their absence German princes had thrown off the Danish yoke, the kingdom was plunged in anarchy, and thenceforth Valdemar's reign was marked by futile attempts to recover his lost conquests, and redeem the glory of Denmark, but it is honourably distinguished by the codification of settled laws for the various provinces, a labour in which Valdemar took an active part. Some of these codes, as that of Jutland, remained in force 450 years.

1241—1340.—Erik, "Plougmoney," Abel, and Christopher I., sons of Valdemar Sejr by his second queen, Berangaria of Portugal, who succeeded him, inherited the violent nature ascribed by the people to this much-hated princess. Civil war prevailed under all three; and while Erik was murdered in 1251 by order of his brother Abel, and the latter, two years later, was slain by a Frisian peasant during an incursion into the lands of the Ditmarshers, Christopher, after a short and ignominious reign, was poisoned while receiving the Eucharist. Under Christopher, Church and State were for the first time in antagonism in Denmark, and at his death, in 1259, the kingdom was lying under an interdict, which was only removed fourteen years later, when Christopher's son and successor, Erik Glipping, made submission to the Church, and reinstated the deposed primate, Erlandsen, in all his rights. During the minority and subsequent reign of Erik Glipping, the terms on which the dukedom of Slesvig was held by the heirs of king Abel formed a constant source of dissension. His murder in 1286 led to the repetition of a stormy minority during the childhood of his son and

successor, Erik Menved. Another interdict, continued wars with Slesvig, and hostilities with the Hansers, brought the kingdom to the brink of utter ruin; and at the death of Erik, in 1319, the latter traders held in pawn nearly all the Danish provinces, which he had pledged for money spent in costly tournaments. Christopher II., who became king on the death of his childless brother, is the first Danish sovereign who submitted to the humiliation of receiving the crown from the electors on their own conditions, which included exemption from every burden for themselves, and deprived the monarch of all power in the State. Christopher's attempt to escape from the bondage to which he had submitted brought on a civil war, in which he was signally unsuccessful. He ultimately died in exile; while Gert, Count of Holstein, on pretence of supporting the claims of his nephew, Valdemar of Slesvig, made himself master of Denmark, which he virtually ruled till his murder in 1340.

1340—1448.—Valdemar III., "Atterdag," the youngest son of Christopher, succeeded in the absence of his elder brother Otto, who was detained a prisoner in Germany, in inducing the electors, on the death of Gert, to give him the title of King. By astuteness, talent, and fortitude, he recovered one by one the lost provinces of the monarchy. His ambition and avarice led him, however, to make attacks on the possessions of the rich Hansers, and after temporary success, he was worsted by them and their allies, driven out of Denmark, and forced to buy peace by granting them a voice in the election of the Danish kings. The remainder of his reign was marked by great energy in the internal administration. He framed laws, laid the foundation of a fleet and army, made roads and canals, and maintained order in his States. With him the male line of the Estridsens became extinct in 1375, when the Council of State, which had assumed the right of representing the electors generally, conferred the crown on Olaf, son of Hakon VI. of Norway, and of Margaret, second daughter of Valdemar, who was appointed regent. On the death in 1387 of young Olaf, who had in the interim succeeded his father in Norway, Margaret was proclaimed by the Danish electors, "All powerful lord and master of Denmark," and received the homage of the States. A year later the Norwegians chose her to be their "king and ruler," and accepted her nephew and adopted son, Erik of Pomerania, as her successor; and thenceforth, for 450 years, Norway remained united with Denmark. The Swedish king (Albert

the Elder of Mecklenburg), whose incompetency had created general dissatisfaction, now declared war against Margaret, whose election had crushed his hopes of uniting the three kingdoms under his own sceptre, and whose pretensions he treated with ridicule. The result of the contest was Albert's humiliation, and the election of Margaret as ruler of Sweden. Her ability and moderation were shown in her administration of the respective affairs of each of her triple States, and in the harmony which she established among the different peoples, and as long as she lived, law and order were maintained, and the unruly nobles kept within bounds. The respect and affection in which she was held by her subjects enabled her, in 1397, to carry out her long cherished scheme of binding the three northern kingdoms into one Scandinavian monarchy; and by a treaty signed by the representatives of the three States, and known from the place at which it was concluded as the "Kalmar Act of Union," she believed she had secured the permanency of this great northern monarchical confederation, but her successors lacked the abilities necessary to carry on her work, and the result of her ambitious project was centuries of bloodshed and disunion.

Erik of Pomerania, in his reign of twenty-seven years, wasted the resources of his three kingdoms in the vain attempt to recover undivided authority over Slesvig and Holstein, and after driving his peoples into rebellion, he was finally deposed in 1439, and forced to leave the kingdom. The electors then offered the crown to his young nephew, Christopher of Bavaria, whose reign of eight years was passed in wars with the Hansers, whose increasing power he tried to lessen by granting to English and Hollandish traders the right of entrance to the Baltic. On his death without children, the Danish electors turned to a collateral branch of the royal house, and chose as their king, Christian, Count of Oldenburg, who was descended from Rikissa, daughter of Erik Menved.

1448—1481.—Christian I., father of the Oldenburg line, was acknowledged king in Norway as well as in Denmark, but although he was crowned king of Sweden in 1457, he could not hold his ground against the successive Governors of that State, who had the support of the nobles. This king, whose heedless extravagance kept him in constant want of money, oppressed the Danes with taxes to carry on his wars in Sweden, and to pay the indemnities required by various members of the Oldenburg family for giving up their pretensions to the Slesvig-

Holstein patrimony, when he secured the title of Duke of these provinces, by pledging himself to leave those provinces for ever undivided. In 1475 he obtained a Papal Bull for the foundation of a University at Copenhagen, which was opened in 1478. Under him the Orkneys and Shetlands passed into the possession of Scotland, in consequence of Christian having failed to pay the money for which they had been pledged to James III., on his marriage with Margaret of Denmark, in part payment of her dowry.

1481—1513.—Hans, son of Christian I., had to purchase his election to the throne in Denmark with a hard compact, and while he soon secured the homage of Norway, the title of King of Sweden was only obtained after years of negotiation, and finally a sanguinary war. Hans was a patriotic and just man, but the influence of his mother, and of his brother, Duke Frederik of Slesvig-Holstein, led him to support the latter in an attempt to subjugate the independent Ditmarsers, which ended in an ignominious defeat.

1513—1523.—Christian II., who had in childhood been consigned to the care of a Copenhagen burgomaster while his father, King Hans, was carrying on war in Sweden, showed a marked predilection for the burgher class, and distrust of the nobles. After his election in Denmark and Norway, he succeeded by an energetic invasion of Sweden in crushing the party of the Governor Sten Sture, and forcing the nobles to do him homage; after which he caused ninety of the principal men in Stockholm to be convicted on frivolous charges, and publicly executed. With this so-called "Bloodbath," the long contested union of the Scandinavian lands was finally dissolved, for the Swedes in their hatred of the tyrant gradually gained strength to throw off the Danish yoke, and by the choice in 1523 of Gustav Vasa as their king, they laid the foundation of the independence and future glory of Sweden. The fear of sharing the fate of their Swedish brethren led the Danish nobles to conspire against Christian; and, renouncing their allegiance to him, they elected his uncle, Duke Frederik, to be their king. After having for a time sought refuge with his brother-in-law, the Emperor Charles V., Christian returned to Denmark with an army, was defeated and captured, and kept in close confinement for the rest of his life, first under circumstances of extreme cruelty, but later with more mercy.

As a Danish king, Christian had many merits, for he strove to repress the arrogance of the nobles; gave privileges to the burghers;

favoured the Reformers; encouraged learning; established free schools for the poor; and passed various beneficent laws, as, for instance, for the protection of serfs, the punishment of wreckers, the observance of legally established weights and measures, &c.

1523—1533.—Frederik I., who had to secure his election by confirming all pre-existing prerogatives of the nobles and clergy, and by pledging himself to leave heretics to be punished by the Church, soon gave his support to the Reformers, whose party so rapidly gained in strength, that they were able in a Synod held in Copenhagen, in 1530, to establish Articles of Belief for the National Church, by which the doctrines of Luther virtually superseded the old faith. The nobles had no cause to complain of his neglect of their interests, for he restored to them the sovereign authority over their serfs, which his predecessor had abrogated, and thenceforth, for 300 years, the Danish peasant was a slave on the land where he was born.

1533—1536.—For three years after the death of Frederik, Denmark and Norway were torn by civil war between the nobles and the partisans of the imprisoned Christian II., supported by the Romish clergy, and by the Hansers, who were jealous of the trade privileges granted by the former king to the Hollanders. This conflict has derived the name of the "Counts' Feud," from Christopher of Oldenburg, a cousin of Christian, who placed himself at the head of the movement. Under him a seaman, known as Skipper Clement, excited the peasants in Jutland to rise against the nobles, who had to sustain a sanguinary struggle with their exasperated foes before they could reduce them to submission. While this conflict was threatening the dissolution of the State, the Danish Reformers were working zealously for their cause, and to this period belongs the earliest publication of the Scriptures in the common tongue.

1536—1559.—Christian III. had been indebted to the Lybeckers for help, which enabled him on the death of his father, Frederik I., to support the nobles against the peasant insurgents, and thus secured his subsequent election. Under Christian III. the Lutheran faith was established in Denmark; the Romish clergy were for a time treated with extreme harshness, and the church property confiscated: some of this the king endeavoured to appropriate to purposes of charity and education, but the nobles contrived to possess themselves of the greater part, on the plea that these lands had in times past been owned by their ancestors. This accession of wealth

virtually made them masters of the monarchy, and the king's authority they made subservient to that of the Council of State, which was recruited from their own order. Through their influence, Norway, which had sided with the peasants in the late war, was reduced to the rank of a province under a Danish Governor. Christian III., who was of an easy disposition, agreed to divide the duchies with his brothers, retaining only the Sönderborg patrimony for himself—an act of generosity which resulted in nearly forty years strife as to the exact terms in which these concessions had been made.

1559—1588.—Frederik II. began his reign by joining his uncles in an attack on the lands of the Ditmarshers, who were overpowered and forced to submit to the Danish and Holstein princes. A Scandinavian seven years' war was waged between the young kings of Denmark and Sweden to decide which might bear three crowns on his escutcheon, and ended without bringing any advantage to either, after entailing equal injury on both countries. To check the arrogance of the Hanse traders, Frederik II. built the fortress of Cronborg, at the entrance of the Sound. Although as bigoted in religion as his father, this king encouraged learned men of all persuasions, and amongst others protected Tycho Brahe, to whom he gave the island of Hven for the erection of an observatory.

1588—1648.—Christian IV., elected king at the age of eleven, on his father Frederik II.'s death, was carefully trained under a regency of Councillors of State. The most gifted of his race, Christian showed marked predilection for mechanical and maritime pursuits. He enriched Copenhagen with numerous buildings, and gave the design for various ships, including the "Trinity," which he commanded when he came to London to visit James I., who had married his younger sister, Anne. He took the command in his various voyages along the coasts of Norway when he more than once penetrated into the Arctic Seas; equipped several expeditions in search of a north-west sea-way to India; purchased Tranquebar from the ruler of Tanjore, as a station for Danish East-Indian trade; founded trading-companies for Iceland and Greenland; established the first post-line between the capital and the provinces; endowed naval, Latin, and other schools, and left no branch of the administration unaffected by the changes which he introduced. Christian IV. threw himself zealously into the German Thirty Years' war, but the indifference of the nobles, who refused to grant him

the necessary supplies, forced him to withdraw. The same cause frustrated all his efforts in the wars which he carried on at the close of his reign, and in 1645 he was forced to make a humiliating peace with Sweden, which, with its ally Holland, obtained exemption from the Sound dues for their shipping. Christian IV.'s failings were weakness for women and over indulgence towards his children.

1648—1670. —Frederik III. succeeded his father at a time when the country was sunk to the lowest depths of misery, and the crown stripped of all authority, for the nobles included in their conditions of election restrictions of the personal independence of the monarch which had hitherto been unknown in Danish history. At this inauspicious moment, Denmark declared war against Sweden in the hope of recovering her lost provinces, while the warlike Swedish king was conquering Poland. The result was the speedy invasion of Denmark by Charles Gustavus, who overran the smaller islands, and was only prevented by the interposition of the Great Powers from entering Copenhagen. The peace signed at Roskilde, in 1658, deprived Denmark of all her east Sound provinces ; and the war, which was renewed the following year, left Denmark, after the final peace of 1660, dismembered and crushed. In this emergency, when the nobles refused to aid in relieving the national distress, the burghers and clergy made common cause against them, and at a meeting of the three estates in Copenhagen proposed to the diet to abrogate the elective and other prerogatives of the nobles, and to establish an autocratic, hereditary sovereignty. The indignant opposition of the nobles present was met by a calm determination on the part of the burghers, which ultimately compelled them to give in their adhesion to the proposed change ; and thus a momentous revolution was effected without bloodshed, although with an utter disregard of the wishes of the people at large, who were not consulted. Frederik III., after receiving the homage of the three estates in Copenhagen, as first independent sovereign of Denmark, proceeded to reorganize the administrative machinery of the monarchy, which he effected with great capacity ; while he encouraged learning, founded the royal library in Copenhagen, and began the codification of the so-called "King's Law," which regulated all affairs of State and Church. Manners were still rude in the north, while great bigotry prevailed in Denmark during this reign.

1670—1699.—Christian V. signalized his independent accession by employing the revenues in the maintenance of a brilliant Court ; and to supply the places of the old nobility, which kept aloof, he established a code of titular distinctions hitherto unknown in Denmark, created countships and baronies, and ordered all families to adopt, and keep to, one patronymic. A difference with the Gottorp princes involved Christian V. in a war with their ally, Charles XI. of Sweden, in the course of which the well appointed Danish fleet under Niels Juel achieved brilliant victories ; but the piece of 1679 gave Denmark no material advantages. Trade flourished, but the bigotry of the Court stood in the way of progress, while Christian V.'s extravagance entailed a heavy debt on the nation.

1699—1730.—Frederik IV. began his reign by rushing into war with his young cousin, Charles XII. of Sweden, and for twenty years Denmark, with short interludes, kept up useless hostilities, in which Danish admirals, as Tordenskjold, performed prodigies of valour, while the State wasted men and money, and was left by the peace of 1720 with no advantage but that of having re-incorporated part of the Gottorp territories in the Monarchy. In peace, Frederik's merits resembled those of Christian IV. He reformed abuses, introduced economy into the administration, and greatly reduced the National Debt ; encouraged learning and the arts, established free Poor Schools, and Colleges for the higher classes ; sent missionaries to the Danish colonies ; and deprived the nobles of their rights over the lives and property of the serfs.

1730—1746.—Christian VI., in all things the opposite of his patriotic father and predecessor, indulged in extravagant display ; allowed his queen, Sophia of Bayreuth, to waste the revenues in useless building, and to surround herself with Germans ; and through her influence permitted a reign of religious persecution to be instituted, under which inspectors reported upon the doctrines preached within the churches, and stocks were erected without the walls for those who offended against the royal ordinances for public worship. The depression in the agricultural interests was met by a protective system, which increased the distress in the rural districts, but trade flourished in the ports, and the fleet was augmented from nine to forty-six ships of war.

1746—1766.—Frederik V., and his young queen Louisa, daughter of George II. of England, restored the social cheerfulness of earlier

times. The theatres were reopened, various Scientific Societies founded, the censure abolished, several manufactures supported by the government, and the East-Indian trade fostered. The minister Bernstorff took the initiatory step towards the emancipation of the serfs by freeing all peasants born on his own lands, and by his policy Denmark was kept out of the "Seven Years' War," and a satisfactory arrangement was made with the Empress Catherine, in regard to her son Paul's claims on the Gottorp and Slesvig patrimony, which he resigned to the Danish Royal Family, in return for Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

1766—1808.—Christian VII., who was alike weak in body and mind, succeeded to the throne at the age of seventeen, after having been neglected in childhood by his dissipated father, Frederik V., and his stepmother. He early fell under the influence of favourites, amongst whom Brandt and Struense acquired fatal notoriety. The latter combined great ability with avowed infidelity, and the violent changes which he effected while Prime Minister were regarded by the Conservative Party as subversive of religion. His intimacy with the young queen, Caroline Matilda of England, brought on her the suspicion and ill-will of the nation; and through the intrigues of the Queen Dowager, the king was induced to believe in her treason and infidelity, and to include her in the charge of *Lez Majesty*, on which Struense and Brandt were convicted. The latter were condemned to death, and broken on the wheel, and she was kept confined in the fortress of Cronborg til her removal in an English man-of-war to Germany, where she died (at Celle in Hanover) in 1775, at the age of twenty-four. In 1784, the young Crown Prince Frederik assumed the direction of affairs in the name of his incapacitated father, and thus put an end to the rule and influence of the Guldberg Ministry, which had governed Denmark in harmony with the views of the Queen Dowager and her son Prince Frederik. This Ministry had endeavoured to arrest the financial difficulties of the country by assuming direction of the National Bank, and issuing paper money largely in excess of its capital. The young regent and his minister Bernstorff long maintained peace for Denmark by adhering to the neutrality system, but the condition of continental politics at the time led England to insist upon Denmark adopting a definite policy; and on her wavering, an English fleet, under Nelson, bombarded Copenhagen, in 1801. This first blow to her naval power was

repeated with more crushing effect in 1807, when England again sent a hostile armament into the Sound, which after bombarding the capital, and forcing the authorities, in the absence of the regent, to capitulate, seized the Danish ships-of-war, and burnt or removed the stores of the arsenal. Christian's reign, which ended thus disastrously, was memorable for the complete emancipation of the serfs, and for a temporary commercial prosperity, which helped to mitigate some of the effects of the national reverses. Under Christian all the Slesvig-Holstein patrimonial lands, excepting those of Augustenborg, escheated to the Crown.

1808—1839.—Frederik VI. exchanged the title of regent for that of king, in a time of excessive financial difficulty, which reached its climax in the failure of the State Bank, in 1813. Order was gradually restored by the foundation of a national bank, with a charter of ninety years, which after a sharp struggle has long since found itself able to redeem its notes with specie. The feebleness of Denmark had driven her into a vacillating policy; and, crushed and enfeebled after the general peace that succeeded the downfall of Napoleon, she was forced to submit to the will of the Great Powers, which severed the long-existing union with Norway, and incorporated that State with Sweden, which had done good service to the Allies. In 1831, Frederik, who in all the troubles of his kingdom had shown patriotic sympathy with his people, offered to renounce the exercise of autocratic power, and to grant certain legislative rights to the various provinces. This measure, however, did not satisfy the malcontents in the duchies, where the equestrian orders had already begun to agitate for the recognition of a distinct Slesvig-Holstein State.

1839—1848.—Christian VIII., a son of the Hereditary Prince Frederik, half-brother of Christian VII., presents the first instance for more than three hundred years of a break in the descent from father to son. Christian, who had the reputation of being a scholarly and enlightened prince, was not successful in his mode of handling the Slesvig-Holstein question, his policy satisfying neither his people nor the malcontents, and his short reign was marked by strong political agitation both in Denmark and the duchies.

1848—1863.—Frederik VII. met the wishes of the Danes for political independence by pledging himself on his accession to grant his people a free Constitution. His promised concessions to Slesvig


and Holstein in no way, however, satisfied the duchies, whose representatives refused to acknowledge the king's right to treat Slesvig as a Danish province, and persisted in their demand for a joint incorporation of both states in the German Confederation. To this Frederik's only reply was that while he would not interfere in regard to Holstein, which was an ancient fief of the empire, he had "neither the right nor the will to sanction the separation of Slesvig from the Danish monarchy." On this, the disaffection assumed the character of an open insurrection, and speedily derived overwhelming support from a German and Prussian force under General Wrangel, who threw himself into Jutland, which he occupied until, by the intervention of Russia, he was forced to restrict himself to the Slesvig-Holstein field of operations. A seven months' truce followed the campaign of 1848, in which the Danes had repeatedly given evidence of the valour and endurance which signalized their bearing throughout the whole of this unequal conflict. The mixed Prussian and Danish Commission, which was appointed to govern the duchies provisionally, effected little ; but the campaigns of 1849 and 1850, marked by the Danish victories at Fredericia and Isted, resulted in restoring the royal authority, bringing about peace between Denmark and Prussia, and freeing Holstein from Prussian and Austrian occupation. In 1852, by the treaty of London, the Great Powers concurred in settling the succession to the throne on Prince Christian of Sonderborg-Glücksborg; and in the same year Duke Christian of Augustenborg, who with his brother had stood at the head of the Slesvig-Holstein movement, accepted the amnesty, and in return for a sum of money renounced all claims to the succession of the Danish crown for himself and his heirs. At this period the Danes inaugurated their acquisition of a Constitution in the opening of their first free Legislative Diet, consisting of the Folkething, or lower, and the Landsting, or upper chamber, through whose labours various salutary laws were passed, including some which extended to women an equal share with male heirs to hereditary personal property. In its relations with the duchies, the new constitutional diet failed to give satisfaction, and, after frequent protests from the malcontents, Prussia and Austria interposed, declaring that Denmark could not legislate for Holstein without the co-operation and approval of the German Confederation, and that Slesvig was not a part of the Danish monarchy ; while they demanded that Denmark should be divided

into distinct parts—demands which the Danes refused to consider. The Duke of Augustenborg next protested against the Treaty of Succession, while Prussia declared itself ready to uphold the duchies in all their rights. The King of Sweden endeavoured to mediate between Denmark and the supporters of the Holstein malcontents; but the former refused to depart from her determination, to govern Slesvig as a part of the monarchy, independently of the other powers, and to retain her long established rights over Holstein.

1863.—Christian IX., on the death, without heirs, of Frederik VII., the last male descendant of the Oldenburg line, succeeded to the throne at a time of intense political excitement. Supported by Prussia, the Duke of Augustenborg announced his assumption of the title of Duke of Slesvig-Holstein; and while an army of Saxons and Hanoverians threw themselves into Holstein and Lauenburg, Austria and Prussia, notwithstanding the dissent of the Diet, entered Holstein, and by crossing the Eyder began the war. General Wrangel demanded the surrender of Slesvig, which not being accorded, the Dannevirke were assailed and taken, the coasts blockaded and the ports invested. In spite of many brilliant successes on the part of the Danish troops, both at sea and on land, no alternative now remained for Denmark but to submit to the terms offered by her powerful foes, in the treaty of peace concluded at Vienna in 1864, by which Holstein and part of Slesvig were entirely separated from the Danish monarchy, while by the treaty of Prague, 1866, between Prussia and Austria, it was suggested by the latter power that the people of north Slesvig should have the right to determine whether they would be under Danish, or Prussian rule. This was, however, opposed by Prince Bismarck, who demanded that Denmark should first take upon itself a part of the Slesvig and Holstein debts; and on this demand being met by a refusal, the question was indefinitely postponed. Since the close of this disastrous conflict, Denmark has made great progress. The Constitution of 1849 has been modified and extended by revisions made in 1866 and 1867, which chiefly refer to alterations in the laws regulating election to the Diet; and the relations between Iceland and Denmark have been established on a new and just basis. The banking system has been rectified; the mint and coinage have been put on a new footing, which includes the adoption of the decimal system; and the railway, postal, and telegraphic organization has been greatly extended. The general

administrative machinery of the Government has, at the same time, been simplified ; and while it would appear that the Folkething has in the course of years exhibited a constantly increasing democratic character, this tendency has as steadily been met by a corresponding increase in the generally moderate conservatism of the Landsting, and of the ministry. And thus, notwithstanding temporary disturbances, which in some countries might have brought about critical results, the Danish Government has, on the whole, maintained a well-balanced political equilibrium since people and king have shared in the exercise of constitutionally established rights and obligations.

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